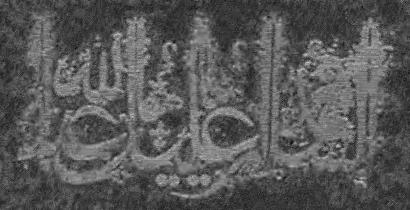
LOUIS MASSIGNON

ESSAY ON THE ORIGINS OF THE RECHNICAL LANGUAGE OF ISLAMIC MYSTICISM

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY BENJAMIN CLARK FOREWORD BY HERBERT MASON



Essay on the Origins of the Technical Language of Islamic Mysticism

BY Louis Massignon

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY Benjamin Clark

FOREWORD BY

Herbert Mason

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Manufactured in the United States Composition by Kelby and Teresa Bowers

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Massignon, Louis, 1883-1962.

[Essai sur les origines du lexique technique de la mystique musulmane. English]

Essay on the origins of the technical language of Islamic mysticism / by Louis Massignon; translated by Benjamin Clark.

p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and indexes.

ISBN 0-268-00928-7 (alk. paper)

I. Sufism. 2. Sufism — Terminology. 3. Arabic language — Terms and phrases. I. Title.

BP189.M3413 1997 297'.4'014 — dc20

93-40284

CIP

The paper used in this publication meets the minimum requirements of the American National Standard for Information Sciences—Permanence of Paper for Printed Library Materials, ANSI 239.48-1984.

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TRANSLATOR'S NOTE ON TRANSLITERATION AND CONVENTIONS

Between the introductory pages (numbered with small Roman numerals) and the appendix (beginning on page 215), the translator and editor's voice does not intrude, except: (1) in footnotes marked by an asterisk rather than a number (e.g. p. 5, p. 19, p. 29); (2) within the author's footnotes (these being numbered consecutively within each of the five chapters), in square brackets (e.g. p. 13, note 1, p. 53 n 141); (3) occasionally, in the body of the text, when the comment is obviously editorial and the section of text is particularly footnote-like, in square brackets (e.g. p. 13, p. 33). In addition to the asterisks that mark the translator's notes, there are others in the main text of the book. These are Massignon's own indications, which have various purposes: e.g., to refer to the sections of the author's Akhbār al-Hallāj that are numbered *1, *2, *3, etc., as the bottom of p. 13, or to emphasize certain letters to the jafr, as on pp. 69-71. Where there is no footnote, the asterisk is Massignon's. The 1922 edition of the Essai also has starred pages, *1-*104, to which I refer on p. 215. The use of asterisks, square brackets and curly braces in the editorial sections at the end is explained under the appropriate section headings in the appendix and at the beginning of the bibliography.

A few Arabic words frequently used in English are given in their ordinary forms—Arab, emir, Mecca, Shiite, Sunni, and others—except, of course, in titles and transliterated Arabic phrases. The Arabic alphabet is represented according to the list below. I have not added final hamza where Massignon omits it, and I hope that most of the possible confusions on this account will be resolved by the distinction between \bar{a} and \bar{a} .

```
alif: hamza: a, i, u
long: ā
maqṣūra: ä
b, t, th, j, ch, ḥ, kh, d, dh, r, z, s, sh, ṣ, ḍ, ṭ, z, c, gh, f, q, k(g), l, m, n, h, w(ū), y(i)
hamza: 5
tanwīn: an, in, un
```

For those who do not understand the curious symbols: In Arabic, ' is a glottal stop, like a strong version of the beginning of "utterly," and ' is glottal fricative, hard to explain. The words in which these consonants occur may be expediently said to oneself in the modern Persian manner, in which both of the letters often simply mark either a change from one vowel to the next, with little besides the change itself to indicate that the consonant is there, or a slight lengthening of a syllable. Also, the "s" in isvara is pronounced like the English "sh."

The bibliography contains inconsistencies relative to this system, because of the desirability of exact transcription of the titles of certain books and articles published in Europe and India, when these titles were originally printed in Roman transliteration. In particular, ' and ' are sometimes substitutes for ' and '.

ABBREVIATIONS

In this list, the abbreviation "s.n." refers the reader to the Bibliography, under the name given here. All references to the *Passion* cite the second edition and the English translation, unless otherwise indicated. These references usually take the form "Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206," meaning *Passion*, 2nd ed. (Paris, 1975), vol. 3, p. 218, corresponding to *Passion*, trans. Herbert Mason (Princeton, 1982), vol. 3, p. 206.

A = Ahmad (in a name) A, a = Abū (in a name) A, Akhb, or Akhbar, s.n. Massignon $^{c}A = ^{c}Abd$ $^{c}AA = ^{c}Abdallah$ AB = Abū Bakr Aflākī = Les Saints ..., s.n., Huart afp = ancien fonds persan, Persian ms. Paris, Bibliothèque Nationale (v. Blochet's Catalogue) Aghānī, s.n., Isbahānī, Abū'l-Faraj ap. = apud, quoted from, as appearing in AR = Abd al-Rahman Aff, s.n., Daylami CAttar (followed by a roman numeral), s.n., Attar, Tadhkira, ed. Nicholson Awārif, s.n., Suhrawardī Ayn, s.n., al-Khalil b. Ahmad

b = ibn

Bahja, s.n., Shattanawfi

Baqli (followed by a roman numeral) =

Tafsīr, Cawnpore lithograph

Bayan, s.n., Jāḥiz

bib. = bibliography

BIFAO = Bulletin de l'Institut Français

d'Archéologie Orientale, Cairo

Book of the Dove, s.n., Bar Hebraeus G. Budé = Lettres d'humanité of the Association Guillaume Budé

c. = circa, approximately
cf. = confer, compare
ch. = chapter
Chr. = Christian

D = Dīwān al-Ḥallāj, s.n., Ḥallāj DI = Der Islam Dove, s.n., Bar Hebraeus

E = Essay (Essai), s.n., Massignon ed. = editor, edited, edition e.g. = exempli gratia, for example EI = Encyclopaedia of Islam EI2 = Encyclopaedia of Islam, 2nd ed. Eng = English, especially in references to the Passion

Farq, s.n., Baghdādī

fihr = Fihrist, s.n., Ibn al-Nadīm

Firaq, s.n., Nawbakhtī

firdaws, s.n., Wahrānī

Fr = French, especially in notes to the

Passion

Fut, Futūḥāt, s.n., Ibn Arabī

G.A.L., s.n., Brockelmann gr. = grammar

Hanbal, s.n., Ibn Hanbal, Musnad Hazm, s.n., Ibn Hazm, Fisal Hebr. = Hebrew Hujwiri, kashf, s.n., Hujwiri, trans. Nicholson

Ibid. = ibidem, in the same place
Ibn al-Athîr = Kāmil fi'l-ta²rikh
Ibn al-Fāriḍ = tā²iyya (= Nazm al-sulūk)
IFAO = Institut Français d'Archéologie
Orientale
ikmāl, s.n., Ibn Bābūya
in = concerning, in
clad, s.n., Ibn cAbd Rabbihi
iṣāba, some clues suggest Sakhāwī or
Suyūṭī rather than Ibn Ḥajar
Ictidāl, s.n., Dhahabī

Jamhara, s.n., Ibn Durayd

Jāmī = Nafaḥāt al-uns

JAOS = Journal of the American Oriental
Society

JAP = Journal Asiatique (Paris)

JRAS(B) = Journal of the Royal Asiatic

k. = kitāb Ka^cbī, see ch. 1 n 1 Kal. = Kalābādhi, Ta^carruf Kashf, s.n., Hujwīrī, trans. Nicholson Khaṭīb = Ta²rīkh Baghdād

Society (Bombay)

l. = line
Lisān = Lisān al-carab, s.n., Ibn Manzūr
LM = Louis Massignon
Lumac, s.n., Sarrāj

M = Muhammad

Madārij, s.n., Ibn Qayyim

majm = majmū^c

ms., mss. = manuscript(s)

Mukhaṣṣaṣ, s.n., Ibn Sīda

Murūj, s.n., Mas^cūdī

MW = Moslen World (later, Muslim World)

n = note no., nos. = number(s)

OLZ = Orientalistische Literaturzeitung
OM = Opera Minora, s.n., Massignon
opp. = "as opposed to," "in a doublet
with," ot "in some way
comparable to"

P. = Paris
 P = Passion, s.n., Massignon (see also above, explanation of references to the Passion)

p, pp = page(s)
Passion, s.n., Massignon

QA = Qādi^caskar Mulla Murad ms. Qāmūs, s.n., Fīrūzābādi Quatre textes, s.n., Massignon Qush = Qushayri, Risāla Quṣṣaṣ, s.n., Ibn al-Jawzi Qut. = Ibn Qutayba

Massignon

REI, Rev. Et. Isl. = Revue des études
islamiques

rem = reminder

RHR = Revue de l'histoire des religions

RMM = Revue du monde musulman

Recueil = Recueil de textes inédits, s.n.,

s.a. = sub anno (annis), under the year(s)
S.A. = Shahid Ali mss., Istanbul
Sh. Ṭab = Sha Tāwi, Ṭabaqāt
Sihāh, s.n., Jawhari
Sīra Ḥalabiyya, s.n., Ḥalabi
s.n. = sub nomine, under the name
(in this list, see bib., under the
name given here)
Stb, s.n., Sulami, Tabaqāt
Stf, s.n., Sulami, Tafsir
Sulami = Ḥaqā iq al-tafsīr
s.v. = sub verbo, under the word

Tagri, Tagrib = s.n., Ibn Taghribirdi, Nujüm Tanbīh, s.n., Mas^cūdī Ṭarā²iq, s.n., Ma^cṣūm ^cAlī Shāh Ṭaw = Ṭawāsin, s.n., Hallāj (1913) trans. = translator, translated, translation Tusy's List = List of Shia Books, s.n. Ṭūsī

v. = vide, see var. = variant v.i. = vide infra, see below v.s. = vide supra, see above Wüst. = Wüstenfeld WZKM = Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes

Yāq., Yāqūt, = Yāqūt's Mu^cjam al-udabā Yoga, s.n., Patañjali Yq. = Ya^cūb Yq. = Yāqūt's Mu^cjam al-buldān

Zak. = Zakariyā

ZDMG = Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft

FOREWORD TO THE ENGLISH TRANSLATION

In 1991 Les Amis de Louis Massignon, a group constituted informally in Paris following the distinguished orientalist's death in 1962, and including members of his family, scholars, writers, and diplomats, established the Institut de Recherches Louis Massignon in association with the Musée des Sciences de l'Homme. French and foreign scholars were appointed as directeurs d'Etudes and the process of identifying qualified researchers and raising money for fellowships and publishing subventions was begun. The intent of the Institut was and is to continue and extend the research of Louis Massignon along the lines of his various scholarly and spiritual interests and beyond to a further assessment of the primary sources that formed the basis of his investigations begun with intensity in 1907 into the civilization, religion, and particularly the mystical tradition of Islam. As Louis Massignon was also a Catholic thinker and close friend and correspondent of Jacques Maritain, Teilhard de Chardin, Paul Claudel, François Mauriac, and others of his faith and time, his special significance as an ecumenicist places him apart from his distinguished contemporaries and is a major line of inquiry supported by the Institut.

The pattern of forming a group of "Friends" of a famous scholar or author following his or her death is a familiar one in France. It is a somber assemblage that usually performs a rite of cultural embalming whose fluid is nostalgia and whose monument to the newly deceased "immortal" erodes away over time with the deaths of the devoted. The psychology of this impulse to bury and preserve intact is a recurring theme in French and in particular Parisian history, a kind of underground Gallic necrological manifest destiny, but one that Louis Massignon himself described and would have summarily dismissed for himself. For though thoroughly French, he was also paradoxically a completely expatriated mind. It must be said to their credit, however, that these "Friends" felt duty-bound to adhere to their friend's unconventional wishes, even if such ran counter to their own thematic impulse. Their sense of duty and their grasp of the thought and drive of Louis Massignon led them to the establishment of an institute that would inevitably wrest the future from their hands.

xvi FOREWORD

Louis Massignon (1883–1962) was a combination of a brilliant linguist, prolific author, man of action, ambassador-at-large, adventurer, scientist, poet, mystic, and radical humanitarian. He was both deeply French and deeply any thing other than French. To many Muslims he was a profound Muslim, to his Catholic co-religionists he was a devout revert to the faith of his origins (he was in fact a Franciscan tertiary and in 1950, at age 67, he became a Melkite priest, though he was married with grown children). He was a man of dramatic contrasts and apparent contradictions who some who knew him partially believed never reconciled his parts. But those who knew him well recognized in him a mystery resolved interiorly by his sense of transcendent unity that is, however, inadequately understood by either personal memoirs or so-called objective studies.

Several attempts at capturing his life and thought have appeared in recent years, some in the form of doctoral theses, some as heavily documented biographies, some as impressionistic novels, some as brief evocative homages, and these in several languages, including Arabic, Persian, German, French, Italian, and English. More are announced as forthcoming and eventually a provisional portrait of merit will appear — this of a man who did not like to have his photograph taken but who also never concealed anything about his life from anyone. The Western impulse to arrive at a definitive study will always be delusional and erroneous.

It is not the intent of the Institut, in any case, to focus on Massignon himself but on those sources he helped discover and make known; and further, on a critical assessment of his work that may even contradict some of his conclusions. And finally, the intent is to extend the bridge between civilizations he strengthened by his remarkable spirit and scholarship.

The present volume is the first in a series of envisioned updatings, translations, and editions. It is his seminal thèse supplémentaire, Essai sur les origines du lexique technique de la mystique musulmane, presented along with his magnum opus, La Passion d'al-Hallaj,¹ for his Doctorat d'Etat at the Sorbonne, defended after World War I and first published in complete form in 1922. These two works were the basis for his appointment to the chair in Muslim sociology at the Collège de France and established his international reputation as a pioneering scholar of the first magnitude. It was his choice to approach something far larger but less known to his countrymen than French literature and to penetrate beyond the European literary concept of "the orient." However, his passion to understand the world of Islam at its source in the Qur³ān and through the direct experiences and testimonials of those pious traditionalist, yet radical ascetic and mystic,

^{1.} The Passion of al-Hallaj, Bollingen Series XCVIII, 4 vols., (Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1982).

FOREWORD xvii

practitioners of the faith also came to refresh his knowledge and appreciation of his own kindred tradition and faith. From this passionately made choice he bequeathed twelve books and four large volumes of shorter studies on numerous cross-cultural subjects based meticulously on devotion to primary sources.

It is fortunate for the English-speaking world that America and Britain have produced in recent years a crop of gifted young scholars and translators with similar passions to understand Islamic civilization, religion, and particularly mysticism through its sources and firsthand accounts, in the Massignon spirit if not in the direct line of his own variety of interests and methodological approach. Benjamin Clark is one such scholar-translator who is a serious student of Arabic, fluent in French, and skilled in Persian, learned beyond his years in both literatures, and has found in Massignon's lexical approach to Islamic thought and tradition a guide pointing him in further directions of research he had already chosen and for which he is exceptionally well prepared. He has done an excellent job, not only of translating Massignon's often difficult prose style, but also in editing the text in light of Massignon's own and of other scholars' subsequent additions and corrections, while remaining true to his author's scholarly intent, form, and values.

The reader will be reminded by chapter 1 that Massignon's Essay was written originally as a doctoral thesis, not as a book for the educated but general reader. Subsequent chapters, resting necessarily on the methodology of chapter 1, will however prove both philosophically and lyrically rewarding to the general reader who persists and finds his or her own growing passion to understand.

Herbert Mason

TRANSLATOR'S ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

For support of this translation I am grateful to Daniel Massignon and the Institut de Recherches Louis Massignon; to Jon Westling, Executive Vice-President and Provost, Boston University; and to the University Professors of Boston University. Too many to thank have read sections of the manuscript and saved me from errors: I owe the most to Laura Hayes, David Reisman, Merlin Swartz, Rosanna Warren, and Jeannette Morgenroth. The staff of the Interlibrary Loan Service of Mugar Memorial Library made the bibliography and corrections possible. Herbert Mason encouraged and oversaw the whole project. He has been Louis Massignon's rāwī and my shaykh.

TRANSLATOR'S INTRODUCTION

Louis Massignon's Essay on the Origins of the Technical Language of Islamic Mysticism is the classic survey of the first three centuries of Islamic mysticism, or Sufism. It is also a treatise shaped to make two major points, both of them radical in their day: first, that Sufism is based on the Qur²ān and innate to Islam, not imported from outside; and, second, that Ḥallāj (d.922) was the culmination of the mystical movement up to his time, not a break with the past and a foreshadowing of what Massignon and others saw as the later decline of integrity and humility among the Sufis. The Essay achieves, by its focus on the formation of the language of one figure, a remarkable mix of concentration and breadth.

The first of the arguments, for Sufism as a natural development of Islam, is made mostly in the first third of the book, through chapter three. This section is elliptical and full of lists of words. To read it without consulting the library of primary texts to which it refers is to skim it. The author attempts to provide the record of the sources for his claims, and he consequently gives a good sense of the difficulties in verifying them. It may be tempting to skip to the beginning of the fourth chapter, which summarizes what goes before. In that place, Massignon's discussion of the Qur²ān, recapitulated and augmented, comes at the beginning of a story with more immediate rewards for the reader. The fourth and fifth chapters, the latter two-thirds of the book, benefit from the movement of history, through the mystics' lives in Kūfa, Baṣra, Syria, Khurāsān, and Baghdād. Large extracts from their writings are the substance of a compelling narrative.

I recommend against moving too hastily through the first part of the Essay. While it is possible to go lightly over the lists of words and names, it is extremely desirable to get at least a glimpse of the argument, as it treats possible and actual influence on Susism from other Semitic cultures, Greece, Iran, and India. The comparison to Hinduism is still provocative. The general conclusions in chapter three—on ceremony, dogma, hadīth, Khiḍr, and the abdāl, among other things—are important.

^{1.} Which "Muhammad did not make" (herein, ch. 4 n 28); i.e., it is the word of God. Massignon was the first of the Western orientalists to treat the Quram with reverence in this manner.

For those who are already, or will now become, convinced that it is worthwhile to read the original texts, I have the following advice. The short list of books to assemble in order to follow the material includes, first and foremost, a Quroan, and, then, Massignon's editions of Hallaj's Akhbār (3rd ed., 1957), Tawāsīn (1913), and Dīwān (1931 or 1955).

A copy of the *Essai* in French would be valuable for its supplement of Hallājian texts, especially the excerpts from Sulami's *Haqā* iq al-tafsīr. These are not reprinted here, and, while I have given some indications of where the texts may be found in new editions, many are still available only in manuscript (see below, Appendix). Even those that now exist in printed versions, which are easier to read than Massignon's handwriting, are useful because they are together in one place. The index that constitutes chapter I is limited without this supplement, its usable references then being only to the published works or the French editions of the *Essai*.

For the history of Susism beyond Ḥallāj, Massignon's Recueil de textes inédits (1929) supplies the originals (mostly Arabic) of the excerpts translated in chapters 4 and 5. His Muḥaḍarāt, or lectures on philosophical language, outline some of the intellectual context of Ḥallāj's thought. European-Islamic equivalents are particularly useful or suggestive and will clarify many difficult points in the Essay.

Notes referring to the Akhbār have had to be updated to correspond to the 3rd edition of 1957; those referring to the Passion d'al-Ḥallāj, to both the 2nd edition and the English translation. These appear in the form, "Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206," which would mean Passion, 2nd ed. (Paris, 1975), vol. 3, p. 218, corresponding to Passion (Princeton, 1982), vol. 3, p. 206. When variants relative to the first edition are significant, they are noted. References to manuscripts have been left as they were, and those to other printed works as well, except where a page number or other such indication was corrected. The one exception is Goldziher's Vorlesungen: because Massignon already refers to the French translation rather than to the original, the notes here are to the recent English version. In a further effort

^{2.} Most readers will need the table of conversion from Flügel's edition to the Egyptian text, in Bell's Introduction (see Bibliography, s.n., Watt).

^{3.} The text refers to Massignon's editions, for the sake of homogeneity. There have been others of the Tawāsin and Dīwān (see Bibliography, s.n., Nwyia and Hallāj, for details), which are of course to be consulted. The Dīwāns of 1931 and 1955 are identical, except that the later one contains a useful supplement.

^{4.} These were given in Arabic, in Cairo, in 1912-13, and edited recently. They have not yet received much attention because they were unpublished for so long. Massignon wrote that they were the first of the three parts (the other two being the Passion and the Essay) of his investigation into Hallāj's myssical language (Passion Fr 1:16-17/Eng 1:1ii—see the next paragraph for the form of notes like this). A fourth part now available is the collection of Hallājian articles in Massignon's Opera Minora, II, 9-342.

^{5.} The second edition (1936) will suffice if absolutely necessary for most of the Arabic, insofar as the numbering system is identical.

to make the Essay more usable, each chapter's addenda from the 1954 edition, as well as all conigenda, have been incorporated into the text and notes. Most references to time (e.g. "in the past seventy years") are relative to 1922, and any apparent anachronisms are in the later material. A bibliography has been added.

The difficulties with the text are only the beginning. The humblest teachings can be the hardest to put into practice, and Massignon demands of his readers not only careful study but that, at least in the mind, to whatever extent possible, they try the experiments of the mystics on themselves. If a reader wants to take the Essay provisionally as his guide, this experience begins with meditation upon the words marking the history of Sufism. Whether he was reading Arabic or writing French, Massignon kept in mind the istinbāṭ of difficult words, the "chewing" and "swallowing" that the mystics practiced in order to assimilate Quraānic terms into their lives. The index at the end of this volume, and in the Passion and Muḥāḍarāt, will locate his own relevant remarks on Arabic technical terms. A brief discussion is required here, about both Arabic and French words, and about the English approximations that have been found for them.

Shath⁷ (lit., "overflowing": "ecstatic" or "enigmatic" language, "inspired paradox") is the first and most significant of these terms. The Passion and Essai of 1922 treat it differently as the sense changes in context. In the second editions of the two works, all new mentions of shath are accompanied by the translation, locution théopathique. This expression, rendered as "theopathic locution" in English, is often used by others with little sense of its meaning as an equivalent of shath.

Théopathique is not in the French dictionaries of Robert or Littré. Carl Ernst discusses Massignon's treatment of shath and gives references, for the English "theopathetic" and "theopathic," to Evelyn Underhill's Mysticism (1911) and William James's Varieties of Religious Experience (1902). The Oxford English Dictionary cites the "creedless theopathy" of the "Sufi school, the 'Methodists of the East'" (1881), and "the theopathic and contemplative quietism of the East" (1899). These quotations are crucial clues to the doctrine contained in location théopathique. It seems reasonable to suppose that

^{6.} The word istinbāt means literally "finding the source of running water." Nicholson translates it, in a manner typically divergent from Massignon's, as "intuitive deduction."

^{7.} For Massignon the defining characteristic and "crucial symptom" of Islamic mysticism.

^{8.} In the Essay, the mentions of locution théopathique from the addenda of 1954 are incorporated as ch. 3, notes 69 and 81.

^{9.} Words, p. 134 (and passin for shall in general). Note that James's use is eccentric in the English history of the word. Ernst also mentions the use of locución by St. John of the Cross, of whom Massignon was no doubt thinking is some way when he wrote locution.

to. Both from the same periodical. Henry Martyn is the orientalist authority given for the first quotation.

Massignon was aware of writers of English in the nineteenth century who were using "theopathy" and "theopathic" in discussions of Sufism. He was against assuming any necessary link between theopathy (suffering the influence of God) and quietism. In the English language, since the eighteenth century, there had been mentions of "theopathetic" affections or emotion. Underhill's "theopathetic mystics," who, he says, are often inarticulate, "are those passive with respect to God, active with respect to men."

Islamic mystics in the highest form of shath were given not inarticulate feeling but speech, which they often used in their public teachings and sermons. They received true shath, as Massignon saw it, sometimes in ecstasy, always in a "theopathetic" state. This word has a more appropriate history in English than "theopathic," but the latter is to be preferred because of Massignon's emphasis on mysticism's medicinal worth in society. He intends to make a comparison to "homeopathic," with attention to the difference between events caused naturally and those caused by God's intervention. Perhaps he was expecting an informed reader to be aware that théopathique usually referred to a theopathetic state, not to speech. "Speech" or "sayings" is better than the stilted "locution." Not all of the theopathetic states of mystics have led to shath, nor are all attested phenomena called shath true theopathic speech. Massignon naturally concentrated on instances he supposed to be authentic. For cases of "shath" in general, the works of other historians are to be consulted.

Another difficult French word is apotropéen. It had existed previously, but Massignon practically recoined it, developing a theme from Huysmans, the decadent writer turned Catholic. The "apotropaic saints" are defenders from harm, protectors ready to be substituted for others and suffer in their place. The doctrine of mystical substitution is at the heart of Massignon's work. His discussion of Islam always returns to the voluntaristic mystics who put the possibility of providential benefit for the community and direct experience of God's love before their own safety and personality.

The French words, dogme, doctrine, grâce, expérience, and conscience are noteworthy. Massignon's refusal to use the first two in a pejorative sense challenges a prejudice held as much among scholars of mysticism as in Republican France and modern Protestant countries. Dogmas have sometimes been founded on or influenced by the experience of the mystics. A softer but etymologically sound translation, such as "teaching," would have been untrue to the original.

^{11.} Mysticism (London: Methuen, 1977), 514.

^{12.} Ruysbroeck is particularly significant to both Massignon and Underhill (Mysticism, 210). Underhill's first use of "theopathetic" is in reference to Attar (ibid., 157) and is relevant, but the full discussion of theopathy is on the medieval Christian mystics (514 ff.).

Massignon uses grâce as the translation of several Arabic words,¹³ in contexts where other French expressions are possible. In only some of these instances is the English "grace" correct. In the French, the "grace" of doctrine seems less removed from ordinary life and writing, because grâce also means "thanks," "charm," and "favor."

Expérimental becomes "experimental" rather than "experiential," which would connote too much passivity. The experience of the mystics, as Massignon describes it, was passive only at its highest point, after many difficult, voluntary preparations. "Mystical experimentation" was an active trial upon the self, preceding ministry to others. Massignon's vocabulary is intentionally medical and scientific, in accord with many of the Arabic authors.

Conscience is inevitably divided into "conscience" and either "consciousness" or "awareness." The distinction in English specifies something tactfully veiled in the French word, though rarely softened in Massignon's argument: consciousness is common to pagans and Muslims, but it is the monotheists who examine their conscience. He was as hostile as the Qur²an itself to shirk, polytheism, 15 and though possessing a flexible, ecumenical mind, he was free of anachronistic relativism.

Massignon's own personal proclivities defined an area of study for him. as they do for any scholar, and, with a frankness always rare in academics, he did not attempt to hide them. He had a decided interest in schools of Islamic thought that made mystical experience a support of Quranic orthodoxy.16 As his secretary and bibliographer Youakim Moubarac wrote, "... we have opted for the narrow but orthodox way of Islamic mysticism, as much against the dominant legalism of Islam as against esoterism."17 Massignon was full of Christian feeling, but he did much to discredit the assertions of other Christian scholars of Islam who had read influence into every apparent likeness between mystics in the two traditions. The Essay emphasizes Sufism's originality.¹⁸ Massignon thought that the similarities between the careers of Hallaj and Jesus, upon which many Muslims have commented, were not an imitation but a real parallel, a conformity effected by God. Readers stirred or disturbed by the vigor of his history of the polemic about Qura 57:27 and the Prophetic tradition la rahbaniyya (herein, ch. 4, sec. 1. B.), concerning the ascetic and eremetic life in Islam, should notice that his argument is in its substance no more than a report

^{13.} Nicma, luff, shukr, and others.

^{14.} In one place (Passion, Ft 1:29 / Eng 1:1xv) Massignon translates théopathie into Arabic as ikhlās.

^{15.} See especially ch. 2, sec. 3. E., herein.

^{16.} See herein, ch. 4, sec. 5. A.

^{17.} L'Islam et le dialogue Islamo-chrétien. Pentalogie, 3, p. 132.

^{18.} E.g., ch. 4 n 201.

of some early exegetes' opinions. His interpretations of scripture are based on Islamic tradition.

No reader can escape the signs tht Massignon had a vibrant inner life, and numerous disciples have tried to elucidate it. ¹⁹ Its relationship to his research is complex, and it will be useful to describe some aspects of the context, which has grown very distant, in which the *Essay* was written.

In the France of the first and second decades of this century, rhetoric about religion was in a high temper. Massignon, after an overwhelming religious experience in 1908, developed a fervent and eccentric Catholicism. The bien-pensant Christianity of the day is part of the unfriendly background of all of his work on Ḥallāj's death. In 1903 Léon Bloy described the milieu in this way: "Among those in appearance least foreign to the divine, among the most pious Catholics, ignorance is now so complete, and hearts so abased, that Sanctity seems a superlative of Virtue.... No one seems to remember that sanctity is the supernatural Favor that so separates one man from all other men that it seems to alter his nature."

Massignon wished to convince readers of the efficacy of the suffering of the martyrs. One of the principles of the Passion, he would state looking back, was that true sanctity was "necessarily excessive, excentric, abnormal and shocking." Many years before, he concluded his first article on Hallaj in a different, but not dissonant tone: "The idea of sacrifice is eternally beautiful. The example of a heroic sacrifice never loses its force; its memory does not die." Only in appearance is this ideal of heroic suffering difficult to reconcile with the Essay's traditionalism. The author's investigations of the earlier, more conservative mystics are rings around the "flaming target" of Hallaj's death.

Massignon's sources convinced him that Ḥallāj was one of the "real elite" of history, a saint who had become in the Islamic Community, like Joan of Arc in France, "a factor in the survival of society and a leaven of immortality." Massignon was not the only Frenchman of the period during and after the Dreyfus Affair (1894–1906 and beyond) to write on martyrs who had precipitated crises of conscience. Saint Joan was a favorite. Contemporary works on her are in a range from Anatole France's skeptical

^{19.} Most systematically, Jacques Waardenburg, in L'Islam dans le mirvir de l'occident, where Massignon is treated with all the thoroughness of phenomenology, along with four other orientalists: Goldziher, Snouck-Hurgronje, Becker, and Macdonald. The best account of Massignon's significance among some Christians is the life by Giulio Bassetti-Sani, Louis Massignon: Christian Ecumenist.

^{20.} From Les Dernières colonnes de l'église. Reproduced in Oeuvres de Léon Bloy, vol. 4 (Paris: Mercure de France, 1965), 263. See Passion, Fr 1:27/Eng 1:1 xiii, on Bloy.

^{21.} In the preface to the new edition, Passion, Fr 1:31/Eng 1:1.xvi.

^{22.} OM, II, p. 17. The article is "La Passion d'al-Halladj et l'ordre des Halladjiyyah," in Mélanges Hanwig Derenbung (Paris, 1909).

^{23.} Passion, Fr 1:44/ Eng 1:3.

biography, a handbook of anticlericalism,²⁴ to the Catholic mystery plays of the Dreyfusard Charles Péguy.²⁵ To take Dreyfus's side was often in part—not as often as one would like—to take a stand against antisemitism. The Essay and Passion defend, with a forcefulness verging on polemic, a point of view both semitic and profoundly Catholic: their decisive argument against the theory that Islamic mysticism was of Iranian, that is, Aryan, origin, is the part that stands out as a particularly just and admirable product of its time.²⁶

The theory can be, and was, embraced for reasons that do not necessarily make an antisemite. It seemed at least plausible to those for whom Persian mystical lyric and didactic verse were the primary means of understanding Sufism. Lovely as some of these later poems are, they contain unreliable accounts of the mystics' lives in the tenth century and before. The theory did not withstand the exegesis of the early mystics' Arabic writings. Massignon was an exegete, an establisher and interpreter of old, inspired texts, though he lived in a time when even the word exégèse ("exegesis") was frequently applied to any sort of commentary on religious or general culture. Péguy wrote in 1911, against this considerable trend in contemporary usage, that exegesis was or was supposed to be only scientific.²⁷ It had simply not been performed on these texts, at least not by Westerners. Presenters of pseudo-evidence, abetted by an impressionistic response to poetry that had seemed to favor their views, had been allowed to rule the minds of the orientalists.

For many people, Massignon removed a critical blind spot towards an aspect of the semitic tradition. On the other hand, it was perhaps out of a blindness in himself that, in spite of his great affection for Attar and certain other poets, he dismissed Persian poetry in general as the fabrication of excessive sensualists. He thought that Persian, like all of its Indo-European cousins, including French, was an idolatrous language, friendlier than Hebrew, Aramaic, and Arabic to paganism and the vanity of esthetes. The Essay is not a treatise on literature, and Massignon's opinion will not necessarily prejudice lovers of Persian poetry against him. A reader's enjoyment may even be enhanced by the information provided here about the early figures to whom the poets allude and who first developed Sufism's universal allegories. Individual witness always interested Massignon more than any system of thought. He deplores certain tendencies in mysticism that he as-

^{24.} Vie de Jeanne d'An (Paris, 1908).

^{25.} Like Massignon, Peguy turned to Christianity in 1908. He had also written on her before that year.

^{26.} V.i., ch. 2, sec. 3. A.

^{27.} He was responding to a reviewer who had called Anatole France's work "pious and secular exegeses": "On avait cru jusqu'ici qu'il n'y avait qu'une exégèse, et qu'elle était, ou qu'elle prétendait être scientifique." In Péquy, Oeuvres en prose, 1909-1914 (Paris, 1961), 898.

sociates with poetry and the arts, but the achievements of some artists moved him. Though the Arabic poet Ibn al-Fārid uses commonplaces associated with Ibn 'Arabī, Massignon could distinguish the poet's "burning lyric" from the gnostic's "calculated, icy symbolism." ²⁸ Massignon was undeniably more sensitive to Arabic than to Persian. Is it not possible that Jalāl al-Dīn Rūmī is more like Ibn al-Fārid than like the members of the Bektashi order with whom the Essay unflatteringly lumps him?

The question of how to build on Massignon's work and diverge from it has been very fruitful for scholars over the years. He himself, at the same time that he was breaking with nineteenth-century notions about Sufism, kept continuity with the earlier works that would endure, the critical editions of Arabic texts.

His own students have been able to build on both his editions and his insights. He was a discoverer in a large field of inquiry, and they have worked to correct omissions and mistakes. Fathers Gardet and Anawati, following Joseph Maréchal and Jacques Maritain, have systematized his general view of Islamic mysticism, from the viewpoint of Catholic theology. Paul Nwyia has sought to find mystics before Ḥallāj who were bolder than Massignon thought, or later figures, dismissed with their contemporaries as decadent, who ought to be valued highly by Massignon's own standard. Nwyia especially has continued the work of hunting through old manuscripts for a mystical language at grips with the real, with life itself. In a different direction, Henri Laoust and George Makdisi have taken Massignon's remarks on Ḥanbalism as the indication of a rich area in which to do original research. Another student, Henry Corbin, pursued the neognostic branch of Sufism and has had a great influence on the study of the mystics in France, America, and elsewhere.

It was Massignon who put the old edition of Suhrawardi's Hikmat alishrāq in Corbin's hands, 29 setting him on a track that would lead to Ibn Arabī. Corbin tried to respect his teacher's ideas on early mysticism while simultaneously casting a favorable light upon the later period. This shift is as fundamental as Massignon's own correction of earlier scholars' views of Sufism as a whole. Corbin saw Ibn Arabī's philosophy as an accurate description of mystical experience like that of Ḥallāj, and as a metaphysical innovation of the highest order.

Scholars of Sufism are often divided by favorable or unfavorable views of Ibn ^cArabi.³⁰ The factions tend to pursue their research independently, and the debate between them, in spite of its potential richness, is moribund. In-

^{28.} Following Nallino: RMM, vol. 44-45 (Apr.-June 1921): 309.

^{29.} Présence de Louis Massignon, ed. D. Massignon, 56-57, article by H. Nasr.

^{30.} There is a balanced summary of both sides of this argument in Annemarie Schimmel's Mystical Dimensions, 259-74.

stead of replying to the substance of Massignon's critique,31 scholars, when disputing his views, often argue only against "existential monism," the expression that he eventually found as a translation of the traditional name of Ibn Arabi's school, wahdat al-wujūd. Like locution théopathique, monisme existentiel is inadequate to sum up a number of perceptive descriptions and arguments. As jargon, the term merits criticism, but if one's attack is on a bit of jargon alone, it is wasted effort. Those who treat Massignon like a scholastic manualizer do a disservice to their own arguments, as they fail to engage his. In his early articles he uses the word "monism" more flexibly: in the Muhadarāt, it alone is his version of both wahdat al-wujūd and wahdat aladyān (unity of all systems of ritual practice). 32 Some scholars claim that because Ibn Arabi did not affirm substantial continuity between God and creatures, "existential monism" is a bad translation for wahdat al-wujud. This conclusion does not follow. In an article of 1912, Massignon describes the wujūdī reinterpretation of Hallāj's "I am the Truth" as "an abstract modification based on the monist idea of the a priori unity of Being"33 (# continuity of substance). A full argument on this point would be welcome. In the end, some will decide, with Annemarie Schimmel and Seyyed Hossein Nasr, that for the chosen saints there must simply be two ways to knowledge of God, the practical and the contemplative. In any case, even if we agree that a systematization of early Sufi doctrine³⁴ is desirable, Massignon's first writings on the subject present a powerful case that Ibn Arabi did not succeed in making one. Massignon's argument has been ignored by some of those who do not like its conclusions, but it has not yet been refuted.

Ibn cArabi's enthusiasts tend to make the whole debate esoteric. They celebrate the source of the word wujūd in the verb wajada, "to find," but they tend to write as if the derivation somehow guarantees that Islamic discussions of wujūd will have greater vigor than anything about "existence" in the West. If the root sense of existere, "to stand forth," is taken into account, as it is by lively philosophers, Western "existence" need be no less satisfying in itself than its Islamic counterpart. The Wujūdīs tend to speak dismissively of Western philosophy, proceeding as if it were coterminous with modern nominalism. They would convince many skeptics if they could reply, for example, to the Passion's chapters on doctrine.

For Massignon, the decline of Susism is commensurable with neoplatonic encroachment of the life of Islam.³⁵ He thought that neoplatonism

^{31.} Which is supported by those within the Islamic tradition, like Ala al-Dawla Simnani, who have criticized Ibn Arabi. For more critical interpretations of Simnani, see Bibliography, s.n. Landolt. Molé.

^{32.} See Muliadarât, p. 149, on "monism" among Westerners.

^{33.} Fr. être, which can also mean "existence": wujud in any case. OM, II, p. 37.

^{14.} E.g., the one sketched in the Passion, vol. 3.

^{35. &}quot;Qarmathianism" is often used by him to signify Hellenistic syncretism as combined with 'Alid loyalties in Islam. See sympathetic researches in his article, "Karmatians," in E11, and his

was a sign of decay, not specifically Greek, arising whenever a society had passed its zenith.³⁶ But although any neoplatonist myths replacing religion are anathema to him, he quotes Plato sympathetically in the Essay. There is nothing anti-intellectual in his lament of the rift between the philosophical appreciation of mystical experience and the strenuous efforts of ascetics, after the twelfth century.³⁷ Like Muḥāsibī, Massignon was not a philosopher but knew enough philosophy to use the arguments of the rationalists against them. His active life of faith has been a touchstone for more systematic intellectuals. In having that kind of influence he has become like Kierkegaard, with whom he shared an intense Christian humility and a knack for public religious protest that critics called histrionic. He wanted to live, like Charles de Foucauld, under the sign and according to the pact of Abraham, the guiding light to the anguished in Kierkegaard's famous eulogy.

The link through Abraham between Christianity and Islam appears in much orientalist writing as a hackneyed commonplace. In Massignon it was not manufactured affinity but living root, manifest in Arabic language and prayer. In the preface to the Essay, in order to define an aspect of that common ground, he quotes Christian Snouck-Hurgronje on the "interreligional" quality of Islamic mysticism. This neologism (in French as in English) is used because the attested words of related meaning would have tended toward syncretism, would have hinted at Islam's resemblance to other religions in the realm of ideas, at an indistinct, common search for the One. Snouck and Massignon are describing the example of devotion that gave the Muslim missionaries the power to make Indian and Malaysian converts to Islam.

Massignon held fast to the idea that it was not enough for the religious to savor the sweets of intellectual ecstasy in private, for an elite circle. He maintained that the analysis of mystical texts had to be kept in balance by an examination of the authors' effects upon disciples and society as a whole. A few years before the Essay was written, William James had made much the same point by quoting the Sermon on the Mount ("By their fruits ye shall know them") to the effect that mystics could not be judged in isolation. ³⁸ Even Emile Durkheim would have had to agree. But in in-

bibliographies collected in OM I p. 627-66. Throughout the Essay, this loose usage must be kept in mind. Ivanow calls it an erroneous pars pro toto (Guide, I), and perhaps "Ismailism" would have been better.

^{36.} There are tantalizingly brief but compelling remarks on this subject in "L'experience mystique et les modes de stylisation littéraire," in OM, 11, p. 374-75.

^{17.} See Massignon's "Avicenne, philosophe, a-t-il été aussi un mystique?" (1934) OM, II, p. 466-69; trans. as "Was Avicenna, the Philosopher, also a Mystic?" in Testimonies and Reflections, 111-15.

^{18.} The Varieties of Religious Experience, Lecture 1 (Reprint Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1982), 20.

vestigating the social circumstances of mystics' lives, neither Massignon nor James made the assumptions of sociology. Though different in almost every way, they were alike in not separating religion from any other aspect of life, at the same time that they distinguished religious experience from experience of all other kinds. They systematically refused to reduce the religious life to a derivative or composite of other elements. It is possible to avoid this reductionist trap through simple observation and reason, but Massignon was no doubt aided by his Catholic belief, his insistence on Abrahamic monotheism, and his continual calls to remember the transcendent, intervening God of the three revelations.

Benjamin Clark

Essay on the Origins of the Technical Language of Islamic Mysticism

NOTE [1922]

To my comrades of the 56th regiment of colonial infantry fallen in the Levant 1916–1917

With one hand, take the cane (of exile)
That guides those who weep,
And, with the other, in the hearth of pain
Light your torch
Niyāzī, Dīwān, 3rd gāfiyya

The manuscript of the first half of this work had just been submitted, in early August, 1914, to the Istas Press at Louvain, when the printing house was burned in the fire set by German troops on the twenty-sixth of that month.

After seven very busy years, I have been able to reconstitute the part that had been destroyed; and to revise it, filling gaps noticed by Mr. Casanova in 1914 and responding to Dr. Snouck-Hurgronje's valuable observations.

The research for this essay was done principally from manuscript sources not used until now, and it is entirely original. Particular emphasis is placed on two psychological biographies, of Hasan Baṣrī and Muḥāsibī.

Louis Massignon

NOTICE TO THE SECOND EDITION [1954]

In 1922 this Essay presented the public with a French translation of a group of archaic Islamic mystical texts (of the first three centuries) from unpublished manuscripts, most of them not readily available. These documents made it possible to examine how Islam had produced what was later called Sufism.

The Arabic originals, published in 1929 in my Recueil de textes inédits concernant l'histoire de la mystique en pays d'Islam, can now be consulted. A concordance between the Essay and the Recueil is therefore given below.

Readers are still without an edition of Sulami's Tabaqāt al-Ṣūfiyya (one by Johs. Pedersen was supposed to follow my Recueil in the same series),* but they can now consult the monumental Finery of the Saints (Hilyat alawliyā) of Abū Nu^caym Isfahānī, published from 1932 to 1938 in ten volumes, in Cairo. A comparison of that work with the criticisms of the behavior of the "saints" in Ibn al-Jawzī's Talbīs (Cairo, 1923) will demonstrate the lasting interest of my initial perspectives.

No comprehensive work has yet taken up my program of terminological and psychological inquiry of 1922.

On the other hand, there has been quite a large number of valuable monographs, to be indicated below, on several of the mystical authors remarked upon here.¹

It seemed worthwhile to rework and complete the text of my Essay of 1922, which was long out of print. The new edition includes a recast first chapter on the Hallajian lexicon, with an added section on the lexicon's formation; addenda to the other chapters (supplementing the enata of the first edition); additions to the Arabic supplement; and two updated indexes.

^{*}The Recueil was vol. 1 of Collection de textes inédits relatifs à la mystique musulmane. Pederson's edition was finally published, in 1960, by another house (Leiden, E. J. Brill). Contrary to what Massignon says, there was a Cairene edition of 1953.

^{1.} I thank the editors of this Collection [Etienne Gilson and Louis Gardet] for planning a third edition of the Akhbār al-Ḥallāj [1957], one of the most characteristic, and most difficult to find, of such monographs.

NOTICE TO THE SECOND EDITION

CONCORDANCE [OF TRANSLATED PASSAGES IN THE Essay AND THEIR ARABIC ORIGINALS IN THE Recueil de textes inédits]

The following is a concordance of translated passages in the Essay and their Arabic originals in the Recueil de textes inédits, ed. Massignon, 1929. Criticism and corrections of the Recueil by August Fischer, Hussein Wahitaki, and Louis Massignon are in Islamica V, 1932. Selected texts are translated in Joseph Schacht's Der Islam* (Tübingen, Mohr, 1931), pp. 87–128. A new Arab printing is cited by Moustaphe Abderraziq in the Cairene periodical Macnifa, 1931, nos. 1–2.**

Author	Essay	Recueil Rec. 1–5		
Ḥasan Baṣrī	E 125-135			
^c Abdalwäḥid ibn Zayd	E 148	Rec. 5		
Rābi ^c a and Rabāḥ	E 149-152	Rec. 6-9		
Waki ^c	E ch 4 n 490	Rec. 9		
Shaqiq	E 173	Rec. 10		
Muslim Khawwāș	E ch 2 n 1	Rec. 10		
^c Abdak	E 79, 105	Rec. 11		
A.ibn Asim Antaki	E 155-156	Rec. 12-14		
Dhū'l-Nūn	E 143-147	Rec. 115-17		
Burjulānī	E 52	Rec. 14		
Muḥāsibi	E 101, 164ff.	Rec. 17-23		
Ibn Karrām	E 174ff.	Rec. 24-25		
Yaḥyä Rāzī	E 180-181	Rec. 26-27		
A.Y. Bisṭāmī	E 184ff.	Rec. 27–33		
Ḥ. Tirmidhī	E 195ff.	Rec. 33-39, 253-254		
Sahl Tustarī	E 200-203	Rec. 29-42 and Sālimiyya		
A.S. Kharrāz	E 204-205	Rec. 42-43		
Junayd	E 208	Rec. 51		
Ibn ^c Aṭā	E 209	Rec. 54		
A.B. Wāsiṭī	E ch 4 n 15	Rec. 73		
Nașrābādhi	E ch 3 n 70	Rec. 84		
M. Ghazālī	E ch 2 n 49	Rec. 94		
A. Ghazālī	E ch 4 n 132	Rec. 97		
	and n 484			
T. Maqdisî	E 81	Rec. 225		

^{*}The Essai, all editions, cites the periodical Der Islam, an error repeated in P 1695u.

^{**} See bib., s.n. Abd al-Raziq.

To Hartwig Derenbourg

The basis of this study is the lexical inventory of one author, Hallaj. The main supporting texts are reproduced in an appendix;* they are very brief, condensed fragments, meant to shed light on certain technical terms as used in experimental definitions.

We know that the Arab grammarians ('Ayn, Jamhara, Sihāh; then Mukhassas, Lisān al-carab, Qāmūs) made their general catalogue of the classical Arabic language by referring only to pure literature, above all poetry, preferably the earliest poems. The illustrative examples, shawāhid, are from the Bedouin poets of the Arabian desert, none later than the third century A.H. All of civilization is therefore excluded from the standard dictionaries: all technical terms or iṣṭilāḥāt (grammar, ḥadūth, law, sciences) in general, and all mystical terms in particular. The conservative and anti-intellectualist viewpoint of these Near-Eastern philologists' survives in Dozy, although he acknowledges its inconveniences. It is appropriate that his Supplément to the Arabic dictionaries should be heterogeneous and full of gaps, but it deliberately rules out selected categories of technical terms. "I would fear to become disoriented," he says in his preface, "if I were to plunge into the study of certain classes of words; into the labyrinthine terminology of the Sufis, for example. That is a task I happily leave to others."

At first it is tempting to follow his example: the Arabic vocabulary and style of the Muslim mystics give an impression of paradoxically individual "speaking in tongues." But by closely studying their language, especially by tracing it back towards its origins, we discover unmistakable signs of a fundamental intellectual achievement deserving our full interest. It was the first attempt to interiorize³ the Qur³ānic vocabulary and to integrate it into

^{*}See Essai, 2nd ed., pp. 336-449.

^{1.} Necessarily held also by their Western colleagues. We are told with whom Malherbe studied the French of his time and among which subjects our dialectologists go to make their representative sound recordings. The personal interpolation of the subject is thus reduced to a minimum.

^{2.} P. xi.

^{3.} The word is Goldziher's (Vorlesungen über den Islam [Eng. trans., Introduction to Islamic Theology and Law, Andras and Ruth Hamori, Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1981, 147, where the reader will find not "interiorization" but "spiritual experience." Massignon refers to F. Arin's French translation of the Varlesungen; the notes here refer to the recent English version]).

ritual practice. The mystics were the first to appropriate the Arabic idiom⁴ for a system of psychological introspection, and therefore a moral theology. They made the earliest outline of a critical lexicon for philosophical questions.

By 1745, this achievement had been perceived in part by the Indian Tahānuwī, who put some Islamic "scientific technical terms," including the most important mystical vocabulary, into his admirable Kashshāf.⁵ by 1845, two of Dozy's contemporaries, Flügel and Sprenger, showed they had understood completely, when they published three lexicons devoted entirely to mysticism, Flügel for Ibn 'Arabī and Jurjānī, Sprenger for 'Abd al-Razzāq Kāshānī.

In the past seventy years, orientalist studies of Islamic mysticism's technical terminology have multiplied.⁶ There are three tendencies or methods.

The first method, analytical and paleographic, is to publish the most comprehensive lexicons of Near-Eastern origin that can be found; there are some compilations by early but minor writers, and others by noted syncretists but well after the early period. This method was introduced by Flügel, then borrowed by Nicholson. Its advantage is the immediate "enrichment" of our stock of documents. But richness of lexicography, though it is the great virtue in a general dictionary, is secondary in a particular discipline, where the doctrinal homogeneity of the collected materials comes first. The desired quality cannot be produced by this method. And neither Flügel nor Nicholson edited the essential collection, by far the richest in the genre, Sulami's Haqā'iq al-tafsīr, and Baqli's new edition of it.8

The second method, synthetic and biographical, is an "indirect" study of technical terms through a critique of the dogmatic structure of the systems in which they occur. Enormous philosophical erudition is required. Asin Palacios was able to treat Ghazāli's dogma in this way; Carra de Vaux, the ishrāq of Suhrawardī Ḥalabi.9 The method's flaw is an excessive reliance, in the manner of Islam's last great universal historians, on a peremptory classification of doctrines into stereotyped categories defined by biased polemicists. In the last twenty years, we have given too much credit to the heresiographers and critics of a certain school of literalist ahl alhadīth, the a priori anti-mystic Ḥashwiyya, such as Ibn Sa^cd, Ibn Ḥazm, Ibn

^{4.} There is as yet no comprehensive study of the parallel Western phenomenon, "mystical Latin" (as Huysmans and Rémy de Gourmont prefer to call what should be called "church Latin"); a comparison of these two "consecrated languages" would be fruitful.

Ed. Sprenger. Before Tahānuwi other non-Arab Muslims, in this case Persian (Āmulī, for example) and Ottoman encyclopedists and lexicographers, had collected materials.

^{6.} See my own Bibliographie hallagienne (Passion, ch. 15 nos. 1639, 1665, 1670, 1671, 1685, 1689, 1692, 1708, 1729, 1736, [same numbers in all editions, French and English, of the Passion]).

^{7.} Who critically edited or translated Sarraj and Hujwiri.

^{8.} Arā is al-bayān, lithographed in India.

^{9.} And Nyberg, Ibn Arabi.

al-Jawzī, Ibn Taymiyya, and Dhahabī. They argue with a clarity that can be seductive, but their interpretation of doctrine, and especially of terminology, to very often betrays the unthinking haste of polemic.

Thirdly, the scholar may work slowly and patiently to exhaust his sources and build homogeneous lexicons, one for each author. In 1908, August Fischer recommended this method for the preparation of a scientific dictionary of Arabic, with direct quotations from serious editions of texts (Mu^callagat, Mufaddaliyat, Hamasatayn, Hariri, etc.) to be examined by a team of scholars. The method (which, when applied to poets, has proved fertile by making it easier to distinguish spuria from authentica in their dīwāns) is indispensable for mystic authors. The only way to understand how they formed their vocabulary is to juxtapose the development of their writings and the progessive stages of their careers. I have used this method here. It was necessary to choose a highly developed case, a model author whose originality is clearly demonstrated in history. Early Islam offered Muhāsibi, Hallāj, and Ghazālī (with, to a lesser extent, Ghazālī's model, Abū Tālib Makkī). I chose Hallāj, because he makes the clearest, most theoretical, and most practical exposition of mysticism's crucial symptom, the experimental phenomenon of shath, which is the sign of transforming union and the exchange of wilk.

It is dangerous to minimize the role of the mystical lexicon in the development of Islamic dogma. The mysticism of Islam is what has made it an international and universal religion. International, through the proselytizing work of mystics visiting infidel countries: the persuasive example of Muslim hermits, as well as that of the Chishtiyya, Shattariyya, and Naqshbandiyya sheikhs who learned the local dialects and mingled with the people, did much more than the tyrannical fanaticism of conquerors speaking foreign languages to convert so many Indians and Malays to Islam. II Universal, because the mystics were the first to understand the existence and moral efficacy of al-hanifiyya, the rational monotheism natural to all men.12 The result was Muhāsibī's and Ibn Karrām's apostolic universalism, followed, in a later, degenerate form, by the theosophical syncretism of Ibn Arabī, Jalāl Rūmī, and the Bektāshīs. Snouck-Hurgronje makes the point strongly:13 "Through its mysticism Islam has found the means to rise to a height from which it can see farther than its own, severely limited horizon . . . in it there is something interreligional."

Ibn al-Jawel on makr (Passion, Fr. 3:51 n 2/Eng 3:43 n 121); Dhahabi on färigh min aldunyā wa'l-ākhira (Passion, Fr 2:57 n 4/Eng 2:48 n 166).

^{11.} Note the very different percentages of Muslims in Behar and Bengal, both subjugated politically during the same period (Arnold, Preaching of Islam, s.v.).

^{12.} Passion, Fr 3:116/Eng 3:105.

^{13.} Politique musulmane de la Hollande, in RMM (1911) 446, 448 (= 70, 72 of the offprint).

On the other hand, we must not reduce mysticism to its formal esthetic. It is not merely an exercise of the speculative imagination, refining on the subtlety of terms. The sonorous chains of rare words in a text such as the "Letter from Junayd to Yaḥyā Rāzī" are nothing but the variations of a virtuoso amusing himself. As for the instances of alliteration in Ḥallāj's Tawāsīn, I have argued elsewhere that such sequences follow long, fully reasoned passages because of the need to free the mind from the previous discursive effort and to clear the way for meditation. Excessively frequent usage of willfully obscure, esoteric terms to the mark of the decadence heralded by Ibn Arabī's school. Early Islam's great mystics acted otherwise.

Sufism, which "enlivened" Islam (as Ghazālī, the author of the Ihyā, is the last, in his Mungidh, to have explained satisfactorily), was a method of thorough introspection, of making use ab intra of all of life's events, fortunate or unfortunate. It was ritual experimentation with pain, and it transformed those loval enough to persevere to the end into physicians, to whom others could then go for treatment. As Muhāsibī 17 said, "In the light of the divine Wisdom, they cast their eyes toward the lands where remedies18 grow. After God had taught them how to work the cure by healing their own hearts, He commanded them to comfort those who suffer..." Sufism is more than simple nomenclature or pharmaceutical prescriptions. It is therapy that the attending physician has tried on himself, to allow others to benefit. "Sufism," said Nūrī, "is neither a group of texts nor a system of speculative knowledge, it is customs," i.e., a way of living, a rule. Junayd said to Jurayri, "We did not learn Sufism by listening to those who say this or that, but by enduring hunger, renouncing the world, severing ourselves from what is familiar and delightful to us."19

The social importance of Islamic mysticism comes precisely from this source, from its alleged worth as a medical treatment. Were its masters able, as they claimed, to extract from the wells of their inner lives the means to "heal the pain of men's hearts," to dress the wounds of a community torn by the vices of unworthy members? Our only way to verify the reality that was the goal of the Islamic mystics' experiments is to probe their social consequences, to examine the mystical rules' value and effec-

^{14.} Sarrāj, Luma^c, 358. [The "letter" is also available in Ali Hassan Abdel-Kader's Life, Personality, and Writing of al-Junayd, E. J. W. Gibb Mem. Series, new series XXII, London, 1962, 2 (Arabic section) and 123 (in translation).] Nor is there any point in wasting time on kabbalism, which is only a degeneration of intelligible symbols (figured phrases, dawā bir) transformed into objects of superstition "and made a trap for fools" [in English in the original].

^{15.} Passion, Fr 3:358-59/Eng 3:340-41.

^{16.} The only tolerable catechistic precaution is the one suggesting silence under deceitful and hypocritical interrogation.

¹⁷ Maliabba.

^{18.} He means simple medicinal herbs.

^{19. [}Recueil, p. 51]; Hujwirl, Kashf, 42; Qush, 22, Tagrib, 11, 178 (cf. John 19:13).

tiveness in curing the body of society. We must not allow our curiosity to become absorbed by those sudden, strange flights of the intelligence into abstract ecstacy, where certain mystics boast, in their solitude, of forgetting in God to have pity for men.

The enduring power of Islamic mysticism is not in the haughty, morose isolation in which Majdhūb proclaims: 20 "Bury your secret in the earth, seventy cubits down./And let all creatures moan until the Last Judgment."

The power is in the superhuman desire for sacrifice for the sake of one's brothers; in the martyr's transcendent ecstasy sung by Ḥallāj: "Forgive them, and do not forgive me... Since You are consuming my humanity in Your divinity, by what Your divinity owes to my humanity, I ask You to be merciful to these, who have worked to bring about my death."

^{20.} Ap. Ibn Ajiba, Futühāt, 1, 46.

^{21.} Passion, Fr 1:649-50, 3:231/Eng 1:599-600, 3:219 [book 3, ch. 20 of Mirsåd al-sibåd of Najm al-Din Rå21 (d. 654/1256)].

I. Alphabetical List OF Mystical Technical Terms Taken from THE WORKS OF AL-HALLAI

The terms are given in Arabic alphabetical order, according to their roots. Initials refer to the sources indicated below. The Arabic numerals refer to the numbering systems in texts published either previously (T, A) or, in an appendix, herein [in the Essay, 1st and 2nd Fr eds.] (S, B, R, K, C, J, G, Y, H, M, W); a Roman numeral following the letter T indicates the number of the chapter in the Tawāsīn.

The senses of these terms can be consulted in translation through the indexes of my two works (P, E).² It is useful to compare the meanings intended in the uses from the following list to the definitions suggested for 143 terms by Sarrāj (Luma^c, 333-74), for 106 terms by Hujwīrī (Kashf, 367-

2. Passion, Essay.

^{1.} A = Akhbār al-Hallāj (2nd ed., 1936) [references are not always to the 2nd ed; some are to the first Akhbār. When the listed number is followed by a number in parentheses, the former is that of the main numbering system in both the 2nd and 3rd (1957) ed. of the Akhbār, and the latter is the number LM gives, which usually corresponds to the one in the 1st ed. An asterisk before a number means that it is in the mulliag, supplement. The Akhbār's index of technical terms (3rd ed., 129-37) further specifies the references given here.] B = Baqli, tafsir (the page numbers refer to the Berlin manuscript, the volume numbers to the Cawnpore lithograph). Bak = Ion Bakuya, Bidāya (Quatre textes, II). C = Baqli, Shatliryāt (page number alone refers to the Shahid Ali manuscript; page number with recto or verso, to the Qadi askar Mulla Murad ms.). D = Diwan, nos., ed. 1931 [in general, in the French, Roman numerals after "D" are for quaidas, Arabic numerals for muqaiia at. As there are also some page numbers mixed in, I have added "Q." and "M." and "p." where appropriate. When I could not find the word, I have left Massignon's numbers as they appear in the original]. Fani = Sharlı khutba. G = Sulami, Chalutat. H = Kirmani. J = Sulami, Jawami. K = Kalabadhi, Ta'arruf. Kashf = Hujwiri. Ka'bi = Ka'bi, Manaqib. Khark. = Khargushi, Tahdhib. M=Munāwī. Q=Qushayrī. R=Riwāyāt al-Ḥallāj. S=Sulami, Tafsīr. T=Ṭawāsīn, ed. 1913. U= list of the works of Hallaj (in the Fihrist, p. 192). W= Attar, Tadhkira. Yazd = Ibn Yazdanyat, Rawda. Z = Sulami, tabaqāt [trans. herein, ch. 5, sec. 6. Perhaps the numbers LM gives for Z are those of a manuscript he owned. I have placed them in parentheses. The main numbers given here are those of ch. 5, sec. 6. The Arabic word may be found easily through a comparison of the translation with Pedersen's ed., 308-13. The Arabic letters following the main numbers are the abfad section indication in the corresponding (almost identical) text in the Akhbar, *1, Other indications (e.g., Agar, Aff) refer to texts added to the Arabic section for the 2nd ed. of the Essai, where they are found in the last few pages of that section.]

92), for 102 by Qushayrī (Risāla, 36–159, 166–85), for 100 by Harawī (Manāzil al-sā²inīn), and for 143 by Baqlī (Shatḥiyāt, ff. 114a, 119a $[=Luma^{c}]$).

- ³BD. abad (opp. azal) A 8, 26; S 200; R 8, 10, 12, 19; C 213; T VI:17, 35; P. abadī A 31; P; S 206. ma³būd P; U 7.
- ²ThR. athar (opp. khabar) P; S 55; Z 7 tā² (16); T VI:23, XI:11; A 2, 10 (15), 47 (52), *1. ma²thūra T IV:7. ²ithār P. mu²aththira P.

²KhDh. ma²khudh P; C 183.

- DB. adab A 58. ādāb S 117. ta dīb (see ta nīb).
- ²DM. Adam S 102, 192. adamiyya S 18.
- DhY. yudhī A 20.
- ³ZL. azal (opp. abad) A 64; R 19; S 41, 152, 163; P; T VI:11, X:17; U 1; S 68, 71, 108, 161, 172; C 187, 213. azal(iyya) S 172; R 8, 9; C 213; A 2, 31.
- ³ŞL. aşl P; U 11, 17; A 29, 34, 45.
- ³FQ. āfāq T 17.
- ²LF. (alif) ma²lūf (opp. maqtū^c) P; U 26; A 46, 64; D (M. 27).
- ²L.H. ilah al-alihat P; A 7; (fī'l-samā² wa'l-arḍ) P; A 2, 9. ilāhiyya S 5, 101, 114; A 25. ²ulūhiyya S 47; T X:26. lāhūt (opp. nāsūt) D. lāhūtiyya C 191. Yazd. 1.
- ²MR. ²amr (opp. irāda) P; B 27; R 19; J 2; T VI:14; U 10. amīr R 3. ta²mūr A 10.*
- ³MM. umm D (Q. X).
- ³MN. ²amān (opp. dhikr) P; R; S. amāna P; S 130. ²īmān (opp. islām) P; K 23; (opp. ma^crifa) P. mu³min P; S 12.
- ²NN. ²annī (or innī) D (M. 55); A 50; T I:14, II:5, V:8, IX:2; R 19. ²anniyya (opp. māhiyya) P; Q; C 169.
- ²NA. anā J 6; T II:8, VIII:7. anā huwa A 7(12). anā anta A 50. anā'l-Ḥaqq T VI:23.
- ³NB. ta²nīb S 54.
- ²NS. ²uns H 5; K 35; D; A 9, 38. ma²nūs T V:37. ²inās T XI:25.
- ²H. T IV: 11, IX:2-3.
- 2HL. 2hl T III:3, V:34.
- ²WL. ²awwal (opp. ākhir) S 168, 171, 172, R 24. ta²wîl Q 9; T I:12.
- ³YD. ³iyād A 9 (14).
- ²YN. ²ayn T II:7, V:11, 23, IX:9; A 46, 50, 51 (51, 52, 53); Q1.
- ³YY. ³iyya³hu, iyyā³y K 51; S 74. āya T V:35.

^{*}Massignon, perhaps more by oversight than in deference to the early sources (e.g., Jawhari, Ṣiḥāḥ, s.v.), given his announced principles in this chapter, puts this word (ta³mūr) under the root TMR. The right place is here, where I have put it (and where Massignon knew it belonged, v. Dīwān, M 31) to avoid confusion. See Lane's brief history of this question, in the Arabic-English Lexicon, under ³MR, book I, p. 98.

BD². bad² (al-khalq) S 113. bidāya (opp. nihāya) C 177; T III:1, VI:30. hado al-asmā C 214. BD° mabdü° S 2. BDL. Budalā (= Abdāl) K 54; R 22. BR3. bariyāt R 9. BRI. burj TI:1. BRQ. barq R 11; T I:11; D (M. 39). BRHN. burhān K 15; A 2; R 12; D (Q. VIII). BSR. basar (opp. samc) R 1. basa ir W 45. BST. bast (opp. qabd) A 11. bisāt S 66, 126; C 163; T VI:21; A 47. mabsūt S 54. inbisāt S 66; H 5. BShR. bashariyya (opp. samadiyya) S 5, 191; A 1, 25, 29; Z 28. mubāshara (opp. sabab) \$ 187. BcTh. mabcath R 25. B^cD. bu^cd (opp. qurb) T VI:12; A 3, 5, 13, 14. B^cD. ba^cdī (opp. kullī) C 164; D (M. 33); A 11, 55. BTN. bātin (opp. zāhir) A 6; R 24. bawātin T IV:4. BQY. bagā (opp. fanā) K 47; U 15. BLCh. iblagh S 123. balagh S 9. BLY. balā (opp. ni^cma) S 97, 138; K 14, 26; B 22; W 47; C 192; R 19. ibtilā T VI:14, VII:2; A 1. BWQ. bawā ia T V: 32. BYT. bayt R 10. BY c. bay ca S 154; B 24. BYN. bayn P; S 48; A 31, 50; T V:23, VI:10; K 15. bayan S 123; A 2, 40, 51; U 9. tibyān K 15; D (M. 63, Q. VIII). THF, uthiftu A 22. TRQ. tiryāg T V:35. TMM. itmām G. TNN. tinnīn A 16; W 46. TWB. tawba S 3, 156: J 1; R 20; W 49; P. TYH. tīh T V:35; D (M. 12, 69). ThBT. ithbat A 50; C 191. ThQL. thaqalayn T II:7. ThNY. ithnayn D; A 50.

JBR. jabrūt S 66; R 20. tajabbur T VI:11. JHD. juhūd T VI: 10. JHM. jahīm (khumūd al) B 31.

ThWB. thawab (opp. ciqab) S 135; D.

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JDhB, majdhūb C 183.
IRD. tajrīd (opp. tawhīd) Z. 25; T VI:7; K 51. mujarrad T VIII:5.
JFY. jafā al-khalq S 184.
ILS. majlis (Allah) R 17. mujālasa R 19.
JLY. tajallī K 45, 44; S 130, 136, 187, 198; A 2, 3, 10 (15), 55; C 214. mu-
   tajallī(ya) A 2, 8 (13), 53; U 18.
JM<sup>c</sup>. jum<sup>c</sup>a qā<sup>2</sup>ima R 27. mujmi<sup>c</sup> R 12. <sup>c</sup>ayn al-jam<sup>c</sup> B 27; C 163. Cf. Mélanges
   Joseph Maréchal, 1950, 2:281.
IML. jumlat al-kull C 164; D.
JNN. ashāb al-janna B 30. jannat al-qalb C 190.
INDR, jandarat al-mulk R 26.
INS. tajānus (opp. tajāwuz) K 15; C 178; D (Q. VIII).
JHD. majhūd T XI:1. mujāhid A 17. mujtahid R 22.
JHL. jahl T XI:5.
JWD. jūd S 180.
JWZ. majāz U 46. tajāwuz C 178.
JWL. jawlān T V:18.
JWHR. jawhar S 113; T I:8, IX:11; U 11.
JY2, majī $ 47, 93.
HBB. hubb D (M. 24); A *2 (4), 36, 44; P. muhibbūn R 21. mahbūb H 5.
   Habīb R 27. mahabba (= dhāt al-dhāt) R 7, 13, 17, 20, 21, 26; K 10, 38;
   C 190; B 1, 13; J 8; S 14.
HJJ. D (M. 51), hajj akbar P; R 23, hujja B 6; A 29.
HJB. hijāb (al-qalb) T XI:5, 15; H 4; C 178, 188; Q 3. mahjūbūn H 4;
   C 184. ihtijāb A 5, 51, 53.
HDD. hadd (pl. hudud) T IX:5, X:9; A 5, 13, 44, 47, 50; R 5, 19. haddayn
   TXI:12: O 1.
HDTh. hadath (opp. qidam) Q 1; A 1, 13. hadith T 1:8, X:9. muhdath U 2.
   muhādatha C 213.
HRR. hurriyya Q 7.
HRF hunif, ahruf S 2, 113; K 8; Q 1; R 19; T V:36; U 2; A 34, 39, 40,
   46, 64.
HSB. hisban Q q, hasb S 148.
HSN. ihsān S 170; R 21.
HSL. huşül (cayn al) P; S 21. tahşil K 17.
HDR. hadra A 10 (15). hudur A 5, 10; D.
HZZ. huzūz S 189, 54.
HQQ. (al) Haqq Qur. 22:6; al-Haqq with: shahada, haqiqa, istila, ilham, taka-
   lum, dalīl S 32, 36, 61, 194, 83, 84, 117; al-Haga A 26 (33); B 8; R 5; T
   1:9, IV:5-6, IX:6-7, X:8, 9, XI:26. haqiqa (pl. haq\bar{a}^3iq, opp. was\bar{a}^3it)
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D (M. 17, 40); T II:1, 3, 8, IV:1, V:32; S 194; B 24, 30; U 45; D (M. 39); Z 1 alif (9); B 15; R. 19. taḥqīq C 177. muḥiqq A 44 (50); Z; Q. taḥaqquq S 1; D. istiḥqāq A 50; S 207. Formula: (as aluka) biḥaqq ... A 1, 44.

HKM. hukm (pl. ahkām) A 2, 10. hikma T I:17, VII:1; R 24; Ibn Dihya 100; CAttār 13.

HLL mahall S 155. hulūl D (M. 61); Z 5 bis zāl (14); S 172; C 178.

HMD. hamd R 19; 119. Ahmad, Muhammad T 1:15, VI:1; R 18.

HML. haml (al-nür, al-amāna) S 130, 188; U 4.

HNF. hanif C 24.

HWT. ihāta U 8. hiyāta T III:1.

HWL. ḥal. (pl. aḥwāl) D; S 81. ḥāla (pl. ḥālāt) A 1, 13, 36, 67. ḥawl T VI:2.

HYY. Ḥayy T VII: 5; S 147. ḥayāt S 35, 76; U 3; R 9. taḥiyya C 213, 214. ḥayā Z 14 yaw (23); A *1 (7).

HYR. hā³ir T X:5, B 28. taḥayyur T IV:2, III:1; C 34; A 5. hīra A 9, 32; T IV: 6.

KhBR. khabar (opp. athar) T XI:2, 11; A 67 (58); (opp. nazar) T II:4, III:4; A 10, 53, 67.

KhRM. ikhtirām T I:10.

KhṢṢ. khāṣṣ (pl. khawāṣṣ) S 55, 86, 115, 137; C 178; T V:32, X1:25. khāṣṣiyya S 30, 55. takhaṣṣuṣ A 9; S 120.

KhŢŢ. khaţţ (cf. istiwā) A 32, 34.

KhŢB. khiṭāb C 123. mukhāṭaba S 93; B 4.

KhTR. khāṭir (pl. khawāṭir) D; S 4, 191; Z 11, 12; C 164; A *1 (1), 8, 46; Q 14. khāṭirān A 33, 67 (35, 58).

KhŢF. ikhtiţāf A 5, 10.

KhFY. khafiya S 98; A 41, 62, 67.

KhLL. khulla S 22. khalal (pl. of khalla) D.

KhLṢ. khilāṣ T V:32. khalīṣ R 27. mukhliṣ T VI;16. ikhlāṣ S 199; R 13; U 29. takhalluṣ Z 12.

KhLT. takhlīt (cilal al) S 177.

KhLF. takhāluf (opp. tawāfuq) B 31; S 44.

KhLQ. khalq (bad³al) TXI:26; S 51, 78, 101, 123, 144; U 9, 22, 28; R 18. khuluq S 186, 187; W 41. khaliqa (pl. khalå³iq) T II:1, III:8; U 28; D.

KhLY. khalā (opp. malā) C 185.

KhMR. takhmir (al-arwāḥ) R 13.

KhWD. khawdan A 53, 32.

KhWF. khawf S 127; Q 3.

KhYR. khayrāt U 26. ikhtiyār S 167; T V:35; VI:11, 28; D.

KhYL. takhyil A 47.

DBR. tadbīr (opp. tafwid) K 19; S 102, 128; J 1; T VI: 17. tadabbur T III: 1; K 55; R 24.

DRR. durra (baydā) R 22.

DRJ. darajāt S 125; Z 11 yaj* (20).

DRK. darak 2, S 28. idrāk Z 10; T XI:2. darrāk S 2.

D'W. da wa (pl. da awa) \$ 79, 190; D (Q. I, p. 12, Q. V, p. 22); A 2, 14, 58; S 34, 82; B 29; R 27; T V: 36, VI: 1, 13, 18, 24. $d\tilde{a}^{c_i}$ (pl. dawā^{c_i}) | 8; R 3.

DQQ. daqiqa (pl. daqa iq) K 22; T V:32.

DLL. dalīl (opp. madlūl) T 19, III:10. dalāl A 36; T II:2. istidlāl C 169; K 44.

DNW. dunūw T V:31-32. dunyā D; A 55; R 6, 11, 14.

DHR. dahr (pl. duhūr) C 214; S 40, 180; Q 10; U 5.

DWR. $d\bar{a}^3$ ira T IV:1, V:2-5, VII:1-5 (diagrams),** IX:13-14, X:1. $d\bar{a}^3$ irat al-haram T IV: 10, V:31.

DYJR. dayjür P.

DYR. dārayn Z. 7 tā2 (16), diyār D.

DhRR. dharr S 10. dharriyya S 55, 102. dharra S 50.

DhKR. dhikr (opp. madhkūr; fikr) K 32, 33, 34, 48; J 3; D (M. 18); S 2, 19, 53, 72, 110, 134, 150; H 1; A 12; R 5, 9, 13, 26. T V:18, 19, VI:15.

DhHL. dhuhül S 21. idhhāl C 179.

DhWB. tadhwib S 188.

DhWY. dhat (shortened, dha) A 2, 9, 12, 25, 50; S 183; T IX:8, X:9, 13, 18; XI:10; C 213. dhātī A 2.

R'S, ra'sivāt A 2, 44.

R³Y. ru³ya K 37; B 7, 8, 16; Z 5 wāw (13); S 68; D.

RBB. rabb al-arbāb A 7 (12). marbūb S 206. rubūbiyya S 7, 15, 47, 101, 108, 126, 167, 191, 198; B 15; C 163; A 7. rabbāniyūn S 161; T V:3; rabbāniyya T XI:15.

RIC rujūc ilä'l-asl T VI:11.

RZQ. rizq S 124, 125.

RSM. rasm (opp. ism) T II:4; B 32; S 4, 13, 94, 123. marsūmāt T IX:13. tarassum S 17.

RDY. ridā (opp. irāda, amr), J 1, A 43; W 46; R 17.

RFY. raft T I:8 rafawi id.

RQB. murāgaba H 7.

RKB. nikūb D.

^{*}Pedersen reads rahāt; A*1 still reads darajāt.

^{**} See also the collected diagrams, in the versions of another manuscript, Tawdin, facing p. 178

RKN. rukn R 5, 19.

RMZ. ramz D.

RMS. rams (opp. tams, pl. rawāmis) Yazd.

RWH. rūḥ (nāṭiqa) S 87, 113; C 184, 188; D (M. 6, 21, 32, 37, 41); R 1, 9, 17, 19, 23, 25; A 2, 9, 10; T IX: 11. rūḥāniyya C 178. rīḥ (pl. riyaḥ) S 126; R 187. rā²iha, pl. rawā²iḥ Z 11 yaj (20); A 44 (50).

RWD. murīd (opp. murād) J 6; W 49, 50; Z 6, 7 hā³, tā³ (15, 16); B 21; A 5. irāda B 27; S 84, 128, 179, 191; C 214; T V:38, VI:11, IX:11; R 21.

ZKY. zakāt kubra R 23.

ZLQ. yazliq R 16.

ZNDQ. zanādaga (opp. tawhīd) T V:2; A 47.

ZNR. zānir al-cawra T V:30.*

ZHD. zuhd W 52; cAttar 26.

SBB. sabab (pl. asbāb) S 13, 182; A 53.

SBH. subuhāt S 100; R 15. tasbīh C 214; R 24, 26.

SBQ. sawābiq S 45, 96; T VI:32.

STR. sitr D (Q. V).

SRJ. sirāj T I:1.

SRR. sirr (opp. damīr, pl. asrār) C 163, 164; A 33, 36, 44; D (M. 22, 52); Q 8; T III:11, VI:7, IX:1, XI:2. sirr al-sirr D 68. sarīra (pl. sarā³ir) Z 14 bis yaz (24); A 36 (13).

SRMD. sarmad S 200.

SQŢ. isqāṭ (al-wasā³iṭ).

SKR. sukr A 43; B 16. sukrān Z 15 yah (25).

SKN. sakīna K 47.

SLB. salb (al-caql) C 179; T IV:6.

SLT. taslīt (al-caql) S 127 (al-ahwāl) Z 8 yā2 (17). sultān K 15, 39; T X:24.

SLM. taslim A 44. silm A 3.

SMR. samīr D. masmūr T X:4.

SMc. samāc S 68; Yazd. 2. istimāc S 62; Yazd. 2.

SMY. ism (pl. asmā) D (Q. VII, M. 34, 69); S 102, 113; Z 1, 2 alif, bā³ (9, 10); R 15; C 213; T V:28-29; U 2. ism-a^czam R 13, 15, 17, 25. musammä T X:14, XI:6.

SNH. sunh (pl. sawānih) Z 4 dāl (12); A 47 (52).

SNY. sanā A 2; D.

SWY. Istiwā (cf. khatt).

^{*}Corrected from the text ("min zānid al-suna") of 1913 (v. P Fr 3:321/Eng 3:304), which Massignon had confessed (T p. 168) he did not understand. If Nwyia did not seem to be unaware of this correction (v. his ed. of Taw., bottom of p. 203), I would be readier to accept his modification (with additional mss.: min zanada'l-surwa; p. 203, 221) of Massignon's original shot in the dark.

Sh²N. sha²n A 2, 40; T V:37; R 13. ShBH. shabah S 170. ShBH. shabh A 8, 25. tashbih T X:9. ShIR. shajara T III:6-7. ShKhS. shakhs C 213, 214; U 16; D; T V:32, VI:14, XI:25. ShRB. sharab (al-uns) S 126, 129. ShRH. sharh (al-sadr) T 12. ShR c. shan ca (opp. haqiqa) S 21; B 15; A 6, 41, 47, 49. ShRQ. mushriq R 24. ishraq S 196; T 1:2, 9. ShRK. shirk khafi A 62; S 50, 69. SheShe tashaeshue D (M. 39). shaeshaeani P. ShKR. shukr A 1, 12; J 2; K 28, 29; Z 9 yā (18); B 12; S 72; R 26. ShKK shakk (opp. yaqin) A 46; Q 3; Z 3 jim (11) [see ch. 5 n. 387]. ShKL. shikl (pl. ashkāl, opp. ahwāt) C 178; T II:4, IV:4. ShHD. shāhid (opp. mithāl, pl. shawāhid, shuhūd) S 159, 164, 181, 183; S 16, 21; A 2, 50. shāhid al-qidam D (Q. VI); A 2; S 183; R 18, 27. shahadāt (al-dharr)3 S 9, 10, 12, 32. mushāhada B 30; T VI:35; R 4. ShWR. ishāra S 10, 146, 151; T 1:9, X:3; A 29, 2; Q 12. ShY? shay? S 113. mashi?a S 101, 107, 113, 152, 180; B 6; C 213; A 2; T VII:1; R 19, 21. SBB. subb A 43. SBH. misbāh A 10; T II:2. SBR. sabr (opp. shukr) S 44; W 53; Kacbi. SHH. sihha T VI:1. SHW. sahw (opp. sukr) K 41. SDQ. sidq A 47, 53; S 29; T III:1; U 29. sādiq S 128, 129. siddīq S 88, 89, 90. TI:4. SRF. taṣārif S 21, 96. taṣarruf. SFY. safā T III: 1, V:9, X:19. safawī T I:8, III: 1. istifā S 13. SLB.4 S 112. SLD, istilād T III:1. SLM. istilām Bāk. SLY. salāt R 23; U 25. SMD. samadiyya S 104. masmūd S 58; Z 20. SN^{c} . san R4; TXI:8; S 100; J 1. san a (pl. san a'ic) R9, 15, 25, 26. SHR. sayhūr Q 10; U 5. SWR. sūra S 99, 113, 181; C 214; A 1, 2, 8 (13), 52; Q 1; R 13, 15, 26, 27. taswīr A 13, 25.

^{1.} See tauhid.

^{4.} Cf. Rev. Et. Isl., 1932, IV ("Le Christ dans les Evangiles selon Ghazali").

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SWF. sūfiyya Khark. 2, 3; TV:8, tasawwuf C 191; D.
SYR. tasyîr T III: 11.
SYM. siyām akbar R 23. simsām(at) al-siyām T V:21.
DDD. didd (pl. addad) K 7; T VI: 19.
DRR. darūrī Q 1. idtirār K 8, S 116; B 18, 23.
DMR. damir (opp. sirr) T III:11, IX:2, X:5; A *1 (3), 8, 25, 44, 47; D
   (M. 11, 25, 38, 61). idmär D; K 43.
DMHL. idmihlāl T X:23.
DYA. diyā (mukhammara) K 18; A 9; R 13. istidā<sup>3</sup> (opp. nazar) A 2, 67.
DYR. dayr (qhayr) T VI:6.
DYF. dayf D (M. 37).
TBc tabc Bak 19. tabīca S 109. Cf. Eranos, 1945.
TRQ, țarīga T V: 36. tarq D.
TS. tā sīn U 1.
TLc talca (pl. tulūc, tawālic) K 15; S 94; A 47, 55, ittilāc S 16, 130; R 2;
   C 183; A 67. mutāla ca S 184.
TMS. tams (opp. rams) B 31; Yazd (= C 191); T V: 37.
TWT. tawt C 172.
TW. tā a S 58, 72; R 26. mutā P.
TWF. tawāf K.60; D.
TWL. tūl (opp. card) T XI:16.
TYR. tayrān B 26.
ZLM. zālim (muqtadid) S 133. zulumāt U 16.
ZNN. zann Q 9; A 3, 51 (53). zānn T II:6.
ZHR. zāhir (opp. bātin, ishāra) S 84, 171; T IV:4, X:3. zuhūr S 162.
<sup>c</sup>BD. ta<sup>c</sup>abbud K 53. ma<sup>c</sup>būd R 9; T VI:13. <sup>c</sup>ubūdiyya Q 7; S 75; B 15.
CBR. Cibara K 1; S 42; Z 20; D. i tibar U 28. Cibra Yazd.
JB. iciāb H 4.
<sup>c</sup>DD. <sup>c</sup>adad (nāqis) A 9; C 173. <sup>c</sup>idd T X:9, 23 (XI:1).
<sup>c</sup>DL. i<sup>c</sup>tidāl (opp. <sup>c</sup>adl) A 5.
<sup>c</sup>DM. <sup>c</sup>adam (opp. wujūd) S 5, 86, 113.
CDhR. Cadhar D (M. 26).
cRJ. micrāj (pl. macārij) A 2.
CRS. Carus T V:37.
<sup>c</sup>RD. <sup>c</sup>ard (opp. tūl) T XI:16.
CRF. Carif T I (cf. Qur. 2:141; Hazm III, 201; IV, 206): 5, 13, VI:24, 34,
   X:24, XI:1, 20, 24; Q 14; S 112. cirfan C 169; T XI:24. macrifa Z 4 dal
   (12); W 39, 40; T V:36, XI. ta arruf K 13, 49; C 169. ma rifa (asliyya) S
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41, 80, 100, 152; R 4; C 184; A 13, 29. ma^cārif K 15, S 49; R 8. ma^crūf T XI:24.

CZZL. Azāzil T VI:18, 26, 30.

cZL. ictizāl A 5, *1 (8).

^cShQ. ^cishq C 213, 214 (cf. A 49); W 92; Daylamī (^cAtf 212, 28b-312, 47b).

CTR. cawatir al-qurb A 44.

^cZM. ^cazama R 2, 4; U 24. ^cazamatayn (= azal and abad) S 68.

CQB. iCtiqāb K 8.

^cQL. ^caql D (M. 22, 66); A 33, 62; S 4; R 9; T I:9, VI:10; K 12, 17; S 4; C 179.

^cLL. ^cilla A 53; W 44; T X:16; G. mu^cill S 60, 168, 173.

^cLQ. ^calā ²iq K 22; B 20; T II:1. V:32.

^cLM. ^cilm (opp. kashf, ma^crifa) S 30, 122, 152, 172; A 14, 34, 53; J 7; D (Q. II, M. 10, Q. IV p. 20); K 2, 54; T X:19, XI. ^cilm ladunnī S 117, 83 (cf. R 6, T IV:9). ma^clūm S 168, 155; B 27; T VI:1, XI:10.

^cML. ^cawāmil C 174. Ma^cmūl lahu S 85; Z 19.

^cNY. ma^cnä R 17; C 213; T V:36, VI:1, IX:14, X:19, XI:21; D; [A 46].

^cW.D. ^ciwad K 53; S 53, 56.

 ^{c}YN . ^{c}ayn S 126; A 47; R 22, 25; D (M. 65). ^{c}ayn al- ^{c}ayn S 195; T V:23, VI:1, X:15. ^{c}ayn al-jam c P. $^{c}ayan$ R 5; S 84; C 169, 193; T V:37.

GhRR. maghrūr T X:4.

GhFR. ghufrān [A 44].

GhFL. ghafla (opp. dlikr) S 106, 111; H 1.

GhLB. ghalaba S 84.

GhMD. ghāmiḍ S 113; A 31.

GhNY. ghanī (opp. faqīr) K 26.

GhYB. al-Ghayb (= ghayb al-Huwa) S 41, 84, 108, 152; R 1, 22; A 51. ghayba (opp. hudūr) A 10; D.

GhYR. ghayr (pl. aghiyār) S 124; B 22; T VI:16; A 1.

GhYY. ghāya T II:8; A 46.

FTR. fitra A 12 (18).

FTN. maftūn A 46.

FTY. fatā A 43. futuwwa T VI:20-21. fitya D (Q. II).

FDY. fadaytuka D.

FRD. fard (pl. afrād) C 181. tafrīd (opp. tawḥīd) T VI:8; B 14; Kashf 36. ifrād K 51; S 148. infirād K 15; D (Q. VIII); caff 29b; Z 13; A 5, 12; C 213, 214; T III:1. tafarrud A 9, 25, 51. fardāniyya T VI:8.

FRS. firāsa A 67; S 74. tafarrus Q 9.

FRSh. farāsh T II:2.

FRD. fard T XI:16; S 112.

FR°. farc (opp. așl) A 34.

FRQ. farq T XI:6-10. iftirāq K 37; S 126, 172. tafarruq C 181.

FQD. faqd (opp. wajd) T III:1, XI:3, 22.

FQR. faqīr A 42; K 21, 25, 26b; W 38; S 132, 179. iftiqār K 21; S 132.

FȘL. fași (opp. wași) D; T I:9, XI:1. infișăl S 17, 42 (opp. ittișăl).

FDD. iftidād S 191; Lumac 231; M.

FCL. ficl (pl. af cal) Z 27; Q I; C 214. maf calat T IX: 13.

FKR. fikr K 48; A 32 (34); T X:12. fikra A 12 (18).

FNY. fanā (bi) S 165. fanā (can) S 165; Yazd. 3.

FHM. fahm T V:11, IX:7, X:19, XI:16; R14; A 67 (58). mafhūmāt T X:17.

FWT. tafāwut S 99, 100.

FWZ. mafāza T II:8, III:1, IV:1.

FY. ft T VIII: 3.

FTD. fayd C 172.

QBD. qabḍ A 16; D (M. 30, 33). qabḍa S 77 (cf. 29). Cf. Qur. 39:67; As as 159.

QTL. qatl D (Q. X, M. 23).

QDR. qadr S 70. qudra R 2, 17; T VII:1; Z 9; A 10, 12 (15, 18); C 214; S 39, 145. taqdīr S 54, 113; T VI:11-17. maqādir S 54, 113; T VI:17.

QDS. quds R 8, 16; D (Q. IV, M. 30); A 9, 38. taqdīs D (M. 28); A 12, 46, 51 (53); D (M. 65); T VI:10. arļ muqaddasa R 16.

QDM. qidam (opp. hadath) A 1, 3, 5, 7, 12, 13, 51, 63; R 5; S 108. qadīm T XI:4.

QRB. qurb S 84, 110, 150; A 3, 5, 8, 12–14, 36, 44; Q 1. qurba R 2 (S 5, 181); T 187.

QRN. maqrūn (opp. manūt) S 69, H 6. iqtirān S 72; ^cAṭṭār 18; Jurayrī St No. 42.

QSW. qaswat (al-qalb) S 139, 142; D.

QT c. qai S 33. munqaii T XI:9.

QLB. qalb A 9, 12, 37, 46, 51, 53; D (M. 23, 62); T VI: 5, XI: 15; S 130; C 163, 190. taqlib S 110, 111, 150.

QHR. qāhiriyya S 31.

QWS. qaws R 10, 24. qab qawsayn T V:23.

QWL. maqāl (opp. haqīqa) T IX:7. miqwal A 2.

QWM. qiyām (biḥaqq) A 1, 10; S 14, qiwām Fānī; A 29; S 114, 175. maqām (pl. maqāmāt) S 21; B 21; A 5; Q 14; T III:1; S 123.

QWY. quuwa mukhayyama R 11.

QYS. miqyās (al-cadam) S 86.

K². ka²annī T II:5. ka²annahu T XI:23.

K3S. ka3s A 16.

KBR. kibrīt ahmar U 41.

KRR. karrāt A 2; OK 466.

KRM. karam \$77, 180.

KSB. kasb (pl. aksāb) S 24.

KSW. kiswa S 116, 192.

KShF. kashf S 38; A 22, 45, 51, 55; S 34. kashūf K 48. mukāshafa T VI:16; A 38.

KFR. kufr D (M. 20), A 3, 7, 32, 35, 41, 48, 58, 66.

KFH. mukāfahat al-khitāb S 77.

KLF. taklif S 17, 49, 204.

KLL. kullī (opp. bacdī) A 38; D. jumlat al-kull D.

KLM. kalām T X: 10, 1:9; D; R 4. kalima R 4, 24.

KWN. kān T XI:2; S 174. makān (^curf al) T XI:2; S 174, 155. kawn (pl. akwān) S 25, 90, 137, 175; T X:26; A 33 (35). takwīn S 55, 193, 185. kun! S 63, 118, 137.

KYD. kayd U 10.

KYF. kayfiyya U 45, 46 (cf. U 39, 44; Q 12; R 19).

LA, lā T VII; 3, X:22. talāshī (see LSHY), lā iya [lāyi a] D (M. 55).

LBB. lubb (pl. albāb) A 55; C 190.

LBS. talbīs S 46; D (M. 66); A 12, 50; T VI:14. iltibās T VI:1; A 8, 53; U 1. LBY. labbayka D.

LHZ. laḥza (pl. luḥūz, alḥāz) T VI:7.

LḤQ. mulḥaq (opp. mazīd) T IX:7.

LDhDh. taladhdhudh S 116.

LSN. lisān (al-Ḥaqq, etc.) A 12, 29, 34, 53; R 26.

LShY. talāshī A 10; T II:4, XI:20.

LTF. latīfa (pl. latā²if) C 190, 213; S 166, 208.

LcL. lacall S 4.

LHM. ilhām S 83.

LHW. lahw (opp. sayr) A 15.

LW. lawlāka A 53.

LWH. la2ih D (Q. VII), 21; R 23 (alūhā).

LWN. talwin K 43. mulawwanat T X:26.

M. mim T 1:15, V:27, IX:9, X:19; A 46; R 22; D (M. 65).

MA. mā iyya T X:19.

MThL. mathal K 3; T X: 1; A 2; U 20. mithal (opp. shahid) P.

MHN. miḥna S 115, 156; B 23.

MHW. mahw (opp. ithbat) C 169, 178, 191.

MDD. madad (al-Rüḥ) K 18.

MZJ. imtizāj D.

Mc, mac A 46; T XI:20.

MKR. makr S 45, 46, 71; C 213.

MKN. tamkin (opp. talwin) S 155; T I:1.

MLQ. tamalluq C 190.

MLK. malak R 7, 11; S 103. malik C 214. mamlūk C 214.

MWT. mawt S 103.

MYDN. maydan (pl. mayadin) A 5; T I:17.

NBT. istinbāt S 2; B 5 bis.

NBY. nabī (opp. rasūl) A 10.

NJY. munāja A 9.

NDM. nadīmī A 15.

NZL. nuzül (Kull Layla) R 22, 23. manāzil] 4. intizāl A 5.

NZH. tanzīh T X:1; A 13, 51; S 7, 108.

NSB. nasab S 90.

NTQ. nutq S 50, 93; A 7, 12, 14, 37, 53; C 182; D nāṭiga (cf. rūḥ).

NZR. nazar (opp. khabar) C 184, 213; R 10, 25; T II:4. Manzūr T II:4. nāzir D (M. 55, Q. III).

N° T. na°t (pl. nu°ūt, opp. wasf) S 15, 206; C 178.

N°Y. nicā A 2.

NFKh. nafkh A 10; D (M. 21).

NFS. nafs (pl. nufüs) D p. 127; K 27; S 27, 54 bis, 113, 189, 191, 197; Z 13 yah (22); C 175, 178, 184; A 5, 7, 38, 65, 66 (cf. S 163, 176). nafas (pl. anfās) S 203; C 163; A 44; T V:20.

NQŞ. manqūş T IX:4.

NQT. nuqta asliyya S 41, 45; U 22; A 10, 27, 64; T IV:2, V:1, IX:4.

NKR. nakira (opp. ma^crifa) T XI:1, X:4; A 7.

NMS. nāmūsī D 38 [cf. A 40].

NHY. nihāya K 49; T I:9, XI:2.

NWB. ināba S 143.

NWR. Nūr S 107 (pl. anwār) U 1, 17; S 30, 99, 100, 101, 107, 109, 111, 113, 137, 161; A 9, 10, 28, 33, 40; T I:6, I:1; Z 15, 16 yaḥ (25, 26); R 8, 18, 26; OK 447.

NWS. nāsūt (opp. lāhūt) C 178; D (M. 5, 42); T V:37; A 10, 53. nāsūtiyya A 1, 10.

NWȚ. manūț S 69; G.

NWL. tanāwul (nūr al-shams) A 51; D.

HTF. hātif A 8.

HJR. hair D (M. 13, 23).

HJS. hājis S 158.

HDM. hadma rühāniyya T IX: 11-12.

HLL. hilāl S 6; Z 5 bis zāl (14); R 26. tahlīl C 214.

HLK. istihläk A 1, 7, 9, 10, 30; Yazd. 3.

HMM. hamm T VI:33; D. himma T I:1, 7; D.

HN? tahni'a C 214.

HW. huwa huwa U 38; A 20; S 205; C 214; T I:14, X:7, 15. huwī A 2. huwiyya A 7, 32, 50, 53; S 155; D (M. 55); Aff 48a (opp. āniyya).

HWS. hawas A 47 (52). tahwis T VI:10; A 12.

HWY. hawa A 2, 43.

HYKL. haykal (var. hākūl, pl. hayākīl) C 178; S 13; G; A 2, 8; D (M. 53).

WTR. witr (al-gaws) T V:29.

WThQ. wathiqa T III:11, V:36. mithaq R 12, 19.

WJD. wajd K 24; B 13; C 169, 173. mawājīd K 48; Z 14 bis yaz (23); U 27; D (M. 19). tawājud K 39. ifrād al-wājid S 148. wujūd K 15; Fānī U 40, 43;

T XI:4; R 26; D (Q. VIII, M. 40). mawjūd T VI:34. Jįād Z 17 kāf (27).

WJH. wajh (Allah) A 1, *1 (8). wujūh S 113. muwājaha S 93. jihāt T X: 17, 22.

WHD. wāḥid, aḥad, waḥīd, muwaḥḥad T VIII:2, 6-10, VI:6; R 9. āḥād Z 12 yad (21); B 20; A *1 (7). tawḥīd (opp. tajrīd, tafrīd) U 32; K 15, 51; S 166, 167, 173, 207; A 47, 39, 57, 62, 63 (52, 39, 42, 43, 48, 59); Q 1, 2; C 163,

185; Z 15 yah (25); T VIII:3, IX:7, 8, 14, X:7, 14; B 2. ittihād B 19. tawahļud K 15. wahdāniyya S 10, 108, 90; B 19; C 187; A 53.

WHSh. wahsha A 38 (36). istīhāsh T XI:25.

WHY. wahy A 2, 10; Z 4 dal (12); S 159.

WDD. tawaddud A 20; R 13.

WRD. mawārid A 67.

WST. wasa it (opp. haqa iq) S 17, 49, 169; B 24.

WSL. wasila S 26.

WSM. maysam D (Q. VII).

WSWS. waswās T XI:25.

WSF. wāṣif, mawṣūf T III:9. waṣf A 12; Q 1. ṣifa C 213; T V:36, X:9-10, 18; A 7. ittisāf S 13.

WȘL. wașl T XI: 1. ittișāl K 36; Z 28; T V: 34.

WZB. muwāzaba S 112.

WQT. waqt K 52; S70; T VI:15; W 36, 51; Q 1; A 51 (53). mawaqit S 47.

WQF. mawāqif S93.

WQY. taqwa S 149, 156.

WKL. tawakkul K 30, 31; S 73, 67, 182, 24; J 5; R 17.

WLH. walah J 8; R 22. tawalluh K 34.

WLY. walī (pl. awliyā) K 51; A 3, 14; R 21, 25. istīlā (al-Ḥaqq) Q 8. mawlāya D.

WHM. wahm (pl. awhām) S 72; T V:11; A 13, 25, 37, 47, 51.

YTM. yatīm R 2; D (Q. II). (Cf. the Ismailis; yatīm Abī Ṭālib.) YSR. maysūr (opp. maqdūr) S 65.

YOT. yaqut ahmar R 13, 15.

tinnīn W 46.

YQN. yaqin (^cilm, ^cayn, haqq al) S 120, 201, 202; R 6; A 22 (28); U 31. syn.

2. EARLIER TERMS AND THEMES "ORCHESTRATED" BY HALLĀJ

From the preceding list, I shall now consider several terms that Ḥallāj deepened and orchestrated in his works.

I undertook the same sort of comparative work for his poems, in my edition of the Dīwān (1931), pp. 110-30. The information published there should now be augmented as follows:

The metaphor of mixed perfumes (D, M. 41) was taken from Bashshār (Yāqūt, Udabā, VI, 67). The Ḥallajian theme of perilous love (D, M. 24) was taken up by Mutanabbī (fa aḥla'l-hawā...); the theme of the wanderings of the seeker of God (D, M. 12: and zidnī taḥayyuran) by Mu²ayyad Shīrāzī (Diw. ms. SOS, London); of the Guest who takes all (D, M. 23) by Bahā²uldīn Zuhayr (Diw. ed. 1305, p. 55; commentary by K. Yafi); of the fragile temple of the body, by the Nuṣayrī Khaṣībī (D, M. 53; and Diw. Khaṣībī, ms. Manchester, 120a). This last poem is also attributed to Suhrawadrī of Aleppo (Alwāḥ cimādiyya, ms. Berl. 153a), who took up other Ḥallajian themes (D, M. 22, 52; p. 130: his great hā²iyya).

Note also that Fakhr Rāzī's "great taſsīr" contains a commentary on nos. 68 and 69 [M.] of Hallāj's Dīwān (Taſs. kab., I, 149).

²LF. alif, the letter A, and the number 1. ma²lūf, "accustomed," as opposed to maqtūc, "left alone, lonely." Ḥallāj applies it to any spiritual monad, while the tradition, as much among mystics as among Shitte extremists, reserves it for Iblīs. The alif "has refused the sujūd" (Sarī, ap. Lisān, III, 14: contradicting Futūliāt, II, 197, where, instead, the lāmalif, the jawzahr, rebelled). "Al alif muta²akhkhar al-sujūd yantazir al-amr al-ilāhi" (= Iblīs: ms. Nuṣ. 34, f. 124). Ḥallāj sees in it the monad, the ambivalent Ego, the yaqīn (= tinnīn).

³MR. amr, the divine Commandment (distinct from irāda, the unbreakable decree). Hallāj parts company with the Sālimiyya and Sahl (cf. Tawhīdī, Baṣā r, 91, 256) by centering mystical union on Amr, through the "fiat" (cf. kun).

5. By this time Fudayl b ^cIyāḍ had already given a mystical interpretation to a secular verse of Bashshār (Tawhīdi, Baṣā ²ir, 108).

- ²MN. ²īmān, faith. Ḥallāj sees in it "the nocturnal light of the stars" (Stf 19), which does not reveal the divine Sun (cf. Harawi = Wāsiṭī, ap. Luma^c 314, ^cAQ. Ḥamadhānī, Shakwā 39).
- ²HL. ahl, cognatic family, as a result of philoxenia (jiwār: as opposed to āl, agnatic family; cf. Rev. Et. Isl. 1946, 151). Ḥallāj (Ṭaw. V:34; and Ālūsī, Tafs. I, 231) spiritualizes the Shiite idea of the ahl al-bayt into the divine hospitality accorded to the gharīb (cf. ghurba; and divine adoption of the yatīm).
- BDL. Abdāl, Budalā (cf. Suyūṭī, Khabar dāll, quoted in Machriq 12, see bib., s.n. Anastase), the apotropaic saints, intercessors for humanity since Abraham, according to the hadīth of 'Abd al-Wāḥid Ibn Zayd (Hilya, VI, 165; but see herein ch. 5 n. 344). Cf. Jaḥiz, Tarbīc, 97-98; Tirmidhī, Nawādir, 69, 158; Jacfar ibn Mansūr al-Yaman, Kashf, 123; Ikhw., II, 95.
- B^cD. ba^cdī, the share that is mine (= God; as opposed to my all = my created being). Cf. Ibn Sab^cīn, K. ba^cd al-Wāḥid (title in Ibn Taymiyya, Sab., 93). Ḥallāj "essentializes" this paradoxical Manichaean term: "cIsā ba^cd min Allah" (Ibn Tāhir Maqdisī, Bad², III, 122).
- HJZ. hājiz, the barrier that separates (from God: role of the Prophet, of the Mīm), Taw. V:22—a Shiite idea (Nuṣayri ms. P. 1450, 99a; Mustafā Yūsuf Salām, 129), juxtaposed with Sīn or Saint, who by his teaching supplies a conception of God (Tāwīl al-zakāt, 409).
- HQQ. haqq, (1) in law, an ambivalent term, "debt" or "claim"; (2) in Hellenistic philosophy, the truth (objective truth, as opposed to sidq, subjective sincerity); (3) in mysticism, very early, the implied subject of the inspired saying, of the preaching that personalizes and realizes; the (open) Real, Creative Truth in act. Because of the Sufis, this dynamic term, fundamentally Hallajian and closely tied to the Qur²an (50:41: sayha bi'l-Haqq; cf. 42:17) became the common name for God in the Turkish, Persian, and Indian lands. The statement attributed to Hallaji, "Anā al-Ḥaqq," is well known: "My 'I' is the Creative Truth" (cf. DI, 1913; Qush. 161; Stf 168, 173).

The formula "biḥaqq...," "by the claim of... on...," formula for an oath, of Mu^ctazilī and Shiite origin (Ikmāl 204; Bākūrā 49: "biḥaqq al-Masīli ibn Umm al-Nūr," ms. Ng. 4), was used in mysticism by Ḥallāj (relying on the doctrine of the two natures, divine and human; cf. Luma^c, 260).

haqīqa, (1) in grammar, the literal (as opposed to majāz, the figurative); (2) in philosophy, the real meaning of a term; (3) in mysticism, haqīqa is used in the sense of "closed" or finite reality (as opposed to the "open" or infinite Real; as "deity" is to God), which, through static bad usage, finally came to mean the ultimate (ideal) divine reality of the universe (already in 'Atṭār).

- HLL. hulūl, (1) in grammar, the incidence of the accident of inflection (i^crāb); (2) in the law, the application of a statute: substitution of the curator for the testator (Ibn chidīn, IV, 597); (3) in Hellenistic philosophy, the (illuminating) information of the passive intellect by the active intellect, and of the body by the immaterial soul; (4) in mysticism (Muḥāsibī), intervention of divine grace in man (fā da); (5) divine visitation, in the Shiite Imām (= badā: Ghayba, 41, 63), in the saint (Ḥallāj). A term with Christian resonance, condemned by Muctazilite theologians and Bāqillānī (against Fāris the Ḥallajian), for whom speaking of a "place," a point of impact for immaterial realities, was to materialize them. Ḥallāj himself rejected the term (in his prose, C 178).
- KhTT. khaṭṭ al-istiwa, equatorial writing (Akhb. 32, 34). The 28 Arabic letters were traditionally identified with the 28 astral mansions of the zodiac (and Fāṭima with the western reddening of sunsets when the Moon [= the Imām] appears; this Shiite metaphor (Jacfar ibn Manṣūr al-Yaman, Kashf; and the Ḥurūfis) is "sublimated" by Ḥallāj in a via negativa (Lām-Alif).
- KhMD. khumūd...taḥt mawārid..., "the ember kept hot... under the rain of ash..." Hallajian metaphor taken up by four contemporaries: Ṣu-bayḥi (Hilya, X, 354; Stb 60);* Abū ^cUthmān Maghribī (Baqlī, I, 44); Ṣu^clūkī (Qush. 182); and Wāsiṭī (Baqlī, I, 539; cf. id. on Qur. 12:83).
- DHRY. dhāniyāt, the burning simoom of the Judgment (Akhb., no. 2). This Qur²ānic term (Sura 51) is the oldest known example of apocalyptic exegesis in Islam; for spreading word of it, Sabīgh ibn cIsl, a sayyid of the Hanzali clan of the Tamīm, was ordered flagellated by the caliph cUmar (add "Qūt, II, 116" to the reference given in my "Salmān Pāk," 1933, p. 27). = ghamāma, zullat Madyan.
- RWH. Rūḥ Nāṭiqa, the Speaking Spirit (color: white). Term of Ismaili origin (OK, 441, 445; Abū Ḥātim Rāzī, Aclām, 200), which Ḥallāj was the only Sufi to use. Also nāḥ qadīma (eternal spirit), an extremist (cf. R 17) Ḥanbalite term (cf. also Rabāḥ, Kulayb; Nūrī in Qush. 126) connoting the Rūḥ al-Amr of the Qur²ān, the Holy Spirit; also connoting the secret guest of the holy soul. Opposed to the nafs nāṭiqa (the speaking soul) of the Hellenistic philosophers.
- Sh^cSh^c. Nūr sha^csha^cānī, "scintillating light," the first emanation of the Nūr ^culwī (supreme light) according to the Qarmathians (Malaṭi, f. 16). The nūr sha^csha^cānī is a rūḥ sha^csha^cānī, "spirit scintillating (with love)," informing the heart of the believer in the second flash of divine love (^cAmr Makkī, ap. Daylamī's ^cAṭṭ, no. 39, cf. Ḥallāj, ap. ^cAṭṭ, 48a). It is also the red light (Ibn ^cArabī Tajalliyāṭ, P. 6640, 67a), which will radiate

^{*}The numbering Massignon uses is also that of Pederson's edition.

- from the center of the Sun of Judgement (Nuṣayrī theory: Balansi, 84-85; I^ctidāl, II, 73, article on Fāṭima; OK 460: Fātir; Khaṣībī, Hidāya, 263a; ^cAqīda ḥalabiyya, 4b; Kīlānī, Ghunya, 11, 132).
- ShHD. shāhid (pl. shawāhid, rather than shuhūd), means (1) instrumental ("purified") witness in sacred law; (2) an authoritative grammatical example in verse; (3) a living being (especially a human being) who expresses and bears witness to God (by the beauty of his face, which becomes suspect of idolatry; or by the accent of his speech). The third sense is relevant to the mystic "holders" of this term (qā²ilūn bi'l-shāhid: after Abū Ḥamza and Nūrī: Ḥallāj, Fāris, and AB Wāsiṭī; Abū Ḥulmān), which was rejected starting with Ibn Yazdānyār (Sarrāj, fragment of the Luma^c, ed. Arberry).
- DMR. damīr, the conscious self of man (as opposed to sin, his deep unconscious). Taken from the grammatical meaning of "pronoun" (= mudmar, according to the Baṣran school; as opposed to maknī, Kūfan school).
- ZLL. zill mamdūd, the shade extended (Qur. 77:30) of Paradise, which is ambivalent (Jacfar ibn Mansūr al-Yaman, Kashf, 69, where it is the Sīn).
- ^cShQ. ^cishq, love as desire (as opposed to maḥabba, the static idea of love). Audacious term, of Hasan Baṣrī's school (cf. herein, ^cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd); its theological definition by Hallāj is explained at length, as to origins and consequences, in "Interferences philosophiques et percées métaphysiques dans la mystique hallagienne: Notion de 'l'Essentiel Désir'" ["Philosophical Interferences and Metaphysical Breakthroughs in Hallajian Mysticism: The Notion of 'Essential Desire,'"] in Mélanges Joseph Maréchal, Brussels and Paris, 1950, 2:263–96).
- GhMR. taghmīr al-qalb, the anointing of the heart: Ibn Aṭā (Ḥilya, V, 302; Fāris, on Sura 12).
- QWM. maqāmāt, the stages or degrees of mystical union (as opposed to aḥwāl, the states of mystical union), from the point of view of the mystic's effort (as opposed to the point of view of the gifts of divine informing grace). The traditional list of maqāmāt comprises two parallel series: ten degrees, and nine gifts (the X: tawba, wara^c, zuhd, [sabr], faqr, shukr, khauf, [rajā], tawakkul, riḍā; the IX: maḥabba, shawq, Juns, qurb, ḥayā, ittiṣāl, qabḍ [bast], fanā [baqā], jam^c [tafriqa]—according to Sarrāj, Luma^c, 42, Qush. 38, Awārif, IV, 232, 276, 290; Kalabādhi gives seventeen; Harawi gives one hundred manāzil, in ten groups of ten). Hallāj, who goes beyond these, toward the Master of the "XL" degrees and gifts (Taw. III:1), once enumerated "twelve dawā^cī" corresponding to Ja^cfar's twelve burūi [Essai, 1st and 2d French ed., supplement,] 8].
 - N.B., by the time Dhū'l-Nūn Miṣrī was working out these lists, the profane poets Ibn Dāwūd (Zahra 19) and Niftawayh (ap. Mughaltay, 42) had made lists of the (8, or 5) mental stages of the malady of love, with

- analogous technical terms (istiḥsān, mawadda, maḥabba,* khulla, hawä, ^cishq, tatyīm, walah; irāda, maḥabba, hawä, ^cishq, tatayyum). Cf. also Ibn Hazm's list (Mudāwāt al-nufūs, 36).
- K^cB. ka^cba, the Black Stone of the Ḥaram in Mecca, symbol of the primordial Covenant of souls. By extension, Ḥallāj, in his infamous "Letter to Shākir ibn Aḥmad," for which he was condemned, uses the name ka^cba for the human body of a witness for God who offers himself as an Abrahamic victim to the sword of the Law (Ibn Diḥya, Nibrās, 103). This sense is taken up by Shushtarī (Diw. Ḥallāj, p. 137).
- KWN. kun, "be," "fiat," Stf no. 1. Used eight times in the Qur³ān (Muqātil, in Passion Fr 3:115 n 4/Eng 3:104 n 32), each time for "cIsä and the Judgment." Kun is the word that realizes directly, that creates without a middle term, "without anything else" (bi-laysa; which the Ismailis contrast to bi-aysa), e.g., the Throne, Ṭūbä, Adam (according to Tawaddud, 44). It is Ibn 'Arabī's faḥwāniyya (ms. P. 6640, 72b, 76a; Ism. Ḥaqqī, Rūḥ, II, 329; Muṣṭ. Yf. Salām, 249). It is contrasted with creation by the "two hands," yadayni (cf. this word), which give life (= cilm + qudra, Akhb. 2).
- LBS. talbīs, murky ambiguity. Mukhammisa Shiite term, meaning the god 'Alī's illusory plurality, reflected in the other four "people of the mantle" (Bashshār, in Kāshī, 253). Term limited by Ḥallāj to consideration of the taklīf 'an al-wasā'iṭ, the legal duty concerning mediate causes (which allow access to God only by their disappearance).**
- Lāhūt, divines nature (as opposed to human nature, nāsūt). Both are Syriac Christian and Manichaean terms reworked by the Ismailis (Malaṭi, Tanbīh) and Nuṣayrīs: Khaṣībī (Diw. 22b: lāhūt = Ism = Mīm; 34a: nāsūt = qudra + ījād = Sīn). Ḥallāj, according to Daylamī (catf 48b) and Ibn cata (Fut. IV, 367), is the only Sufi to have used these two terms, which Ibn Khafīf would later condemn. Cf. Ikhw. Ṣafā, III, 97; OK 472; Ibn al-Fāriḍ, v. 455.
- LHM. ilhām (Qur. 91:8), private inspiration (as opposed to wahy, angelic inspiration), accepted as a legal source by the Shafi^cites alone (Baghdādī, Uṣūl). According to Harawī, this was the basic problem, which the judges, by condemning Hallāj, rashly decided (Harawī, Tab. s.v.; cf. Madārij, I, 24-27, II, 277; Hujwīrī, 271, 284; Fakhr Razi, Tafs. II, 426). Stf 83, 84, 119.
- LWḤ. lā iḥ, the shining appearance of God. Ḥallāj's term (Diw., p. 26, 48; Riw. 23: alūḥā), daringly taken up by Ḥarawī at the end of his Manāzil

^{*}Left out of the list in Essai, by simple oversight; see Passion Fr 1:389/Eng 1:341.

^{**} V. Stf 49, P Fr 1:589/Eng 1:543. Surely "mediate causes" (causes médiates), as a translation of unisabilit, is used in the bastard sense. Viz. "secondary causes" or "intermediaties."

- al-sā³irīn (Madārij, III, 332), to Ibn Taymiyya's great indignation (Min-hāj, III, 86, 93).
- MWT. law kushifa lamātū³ (Stb no. 1), death, conceived as the raising of the veil of the Name imposed on us by God. Quotation from a pronouncement by Sahl (sirr al-nubūbiyya: cf. herein, ch. 5, sec. 4. Ḥallāji's very phrase is grafted onto the rhyme of a phrase of Sarī Saqaṭī: "man aḥabba Allah cāsha; wa man māla ilā'l-dunyā ṭāsha; wa'l-aḥmaq yaghdū wa-yanīḥ fī lāshi" (Kitāb rawḥ al-cānifin, attributed to Najm Kubrā, printed at Constantinople, 1275 A.H., p. 80).
- N.Z.R. nāzir al-^cayn, the nadir of the eye (inaccessible; as opposed to bāṭin al-qalb, the inside of the heart: Akhb. 50). Sublimation of a Shiite term (Ja^cfar ibn Manṣūr al-Yaman, Ta²wīl al-zakāt, 98).
- YD. yadayni = the two hands of the Creator (min aysa) = qudra + baqā (Ibn Taymiyya, Fat. V. 241) or ni^cma + iḥsān (Ibn al-Jawzī) or Nūr sha^csha^cānī + ḥikma (mystical Druze manuscript, 29). Mode of creation by the yadayni mabsūṭatayni of God (Qur. 5:69; Ibn Taymiyya, 1.c. V, 72) = du^cā + cibāda (Ḥallāj, ap. cAṭṭār, Tadhk., in supplement). Superior to creation ex nihilo by the kun according to the Ismailis (Sab^cīniyya, 22); or inferior, according to Ḥasan Baṣrī (Qūṭ, II, 87; Shahrast., II, 124).
- Yā Hū = Qāyim Nāṭiq (Y. Khachab, Nasiré Khosrau, 155), as opposed to Yā Sīn = Qiyām Salsal (cf. Akhb. 27). Hallajian term of Shiite origin (Nu-sayrī: yā Hū = CAlī ap. Bāk. 10, 1. 8; Khaṣībī: Cabd Ṭaha wa al-Yāsīn [Diw. 2b]; Muzhir, I, 180; Al-Ṭāsīn; and nūr Ṭāsīnī [Khaṣībī, Diw., 18a]).

REMARK

On the process of interiorization (tadmīn)⁶ specific to semantic symbol making in Semitic languages, especially Arabic, cf. Khadir Ḥusayn, ap. Majalla de l'Ac. de langue Arabe, Cairo, 1 (1934), 180–99, and my studies:

- a. in Eranos (Zurich): "Le Temps dans la pensée islamique," 1949 [Opera Minora, ed. Moubarac, Beirut 1963, 2:606-12; "Time in Islamic Thought," trans. Ralph Manheim, in Testimonies and Reflections, ed. Herbert Mason, Notre Dame, 1989, 85-92], for the words waqt, hāl, wajd; "L'Esprit dans la pensée islamique," 1946 [called, "L'Idée de l'Esprit dans l'Islam," O. M. 2:562-65; "The Idea of the Spirit in Islam," trans. Manheim, in
- 6. In the fragment Stf [Sulami's Tafiir] 84, Ḥallāj explains that true "closeness" (quib) is achieved by a mental "approach." Which is not external annexation of the object by gradual analysis of its differentials but inner substitution of oneself for the object, by being transported into the midst of it in a mental decentering analogous to the Copernican decentering of Ptolemy's system of understanding the world. This method is the basis of all of Ḥallāj's parables, from those in the Tawāsin to the parable of the crescent moon (Stf., no. 6). It is not an intellectualization detached from the experience of love's ecstasy; it is a conversion from a system of rectangular coordinates to one of polar coordinates (cf. the cartography of the seven Iranian kishwār, ap. G. Budé [II, 1943, 122-43]; cf. review Arabica, 1943, no. 1).

Mason, ed. cit., 74-79]; "L'Onirocritique," 1945 [O.M. 2:554-61; "The Interpretation of Dreams"]; "L'Homme parfait," 1948 [O.M. 1:107-25; "The Perfect Man"], p. 300 ff. of the Eranos Yearbook for the chronograms of Maryam, "290," and of the Seven Sleepers, "309"; translated into Arabic by AR Badawi, Cairo, undated). [See also, on these subjects, "The Notion of 'Real Elite' in Sociology and in History," in The History of Religions: Essays in Methodology, ed. Eliade and Kitagawa, Chicago, 1959; reprinted in Mason, ed. cit., 57-64).

- b. in *Dieu Vivant* (Paris); "Le Pèlerinage" ["The pilgrimage"] and "Soyons des sémites spirituels," cahier XIV [O.M. 3:823-30; "Let Us Be Spiritual Semites"], on literal biblical exegesis.
- c. in the Roseau d'Or (Paris): "L'Expérience mystique et les modes de stylisation littéraire," 1927 [O.M. 2:371-87; "Mystical Experience and The modes of Literary Stylization"].
- d. in Etudes carmélitaines (Paris): "La Syntaxe intérieure des langues sémitiques et le mode de recueillement qu'elles inspirent," 1949 [O.M. 2:570-80; "The Inner Syntax of Semitic Languages and the Mode of Meditation They Inspire"]; "Le Coeur," (qalb) 1950 [O.M.2:428-33].
- e. in Lettres d'humanité, G. Budé (v. 2, 1943, 122-43), Paris: "Comment ramener à une base commune l'étude textuelle de deux cultures, l'arabe et la gréco-latine" [O. M. 1:172-86; "How to Find a Common Basis for the Textual Study of Two Cultures, the Arabic and the Greco-Latin"]; trans. into Turkish by Burhan Toprak; reprinted in Revue du Caire.
- f. in the Mardis de Dar el Salam, Cairo: "Valeur de la parole humaine en tant que témoignage," cahier 1, 1951 [O.M. 2:581-84; "The Value of Human Speech as Witness"]; "Les Feuilles archéologiques d'Ephèse et leur importance religieuse pour la Chrétienté et l'Islam," cahier 2, 1952 [O.M. 3:104-18; "The Archeological Excavation of Ephesus and Its Importance for Christianity and Islam"].

ANALYSIS OF THE LEXICON

1. INVENTORY OF THE TECHNICAL TERMS

A. Classification According to Origin

I) QUR³ĂN

The lexicon's principal source, the one to be consulted first, is the Qur³ān. These Muslims knew it by heart and would assiduously recite it in order to create a setting for their daily meditations. In forcing themselves to recite the text uninterrupted from start to finish (khatm) they aimed to achieve the discipline of istinbāt, the immediate elucidation of the meaning of each verse, considered in context, at its place among the other verses. As in the Hanbalite rule, "Do not (like the critical commentators) look for two separate passages from the Qur³ān in order to juxtapose them; read the Qur³ān from beginning to end." Those who meditate a text to live by it tend to employ a simultaneous, synthetic consideration of the whole, instead of piecemeal, analytic consultation of isolated elements, the legal cross-referencing preferred by lawyers.

In the lexicon, we have seen that some well-known mystical terms were borrowed from the Qur an: dhikr, sirr, qalb, tajallī, istimā istimā, ist

Moreover, by direct derivation, the Quron supplied khulla (4:124), tawakkul (3:153), futuwwa (from fitya, 18:9), tams, sūra, dunūw, (53:8),

^{1.} Muslim Khawwāṣ (d. c. 200) explains the method very well: "At first, since my reading of the Qur³ān lacked sweetness, I began to read as if Muḥammad were dictating it to me; then, as if I could hear Gabriel announcing it to Muḥammad; finally, as if I could hear God Himself; 'and all the sweetness was given to me'" (Sha⁵rāwī, Al-ṭabaqāt al-kubrā [Cairo, 1305], I, 61 [Recueil, 1929, p. 10]).

^{2.} Passion, Fr 3:198/Eng 3:185; Sarraj, Lumac, 85 ff.

^{3.} Malați, f. 375, Cf. Goldziner, Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., 69 n 2.

^{4.} Put back into this overall picture, each element is still appreciated according to its proper nuance, discerned beforehand by analysis. Therefore, when a proposition of Islamic dogma passes from Arabic into Turkish, its syntactical order can be changed without damage to the conceptual hierarchy of the corresponding ideas—provided that the translator has elucidated the subject in advance.

archy of the corresponding ideas—provided that the translator has elucidated the subject in advance.

5. Note that the terms wara, khāṭir, firāsa, liaqīqa, aql, fikr, ma nā, ma rifa are absent from the Quran.

ladunnī (from ladunnā, 18:64), ḥāl (from yaḥūl, 8:24), ṭabī^ca (from ṭaba^ca, 4:154), and ṣayhūr (from yuṣhar, 22:21); the fuqahā and mutakallimūn used the same process of etymological derivation for their respective vocabularies. The Qur²ān is also the source of the following pairs of opposites: zāhirbāṭin (57:3), ṭūl-^carḍ (57:21; 40:3), qabḍ-basṭ (2:246), maḥw-ithbāt (13:39), sabr-shukr (3:136-38), fanā-baqā (60:26-27).

There is no need here to point out the antique, foreign elements (Aramaic⁶ and Persian⁷) within the Qur²ānic vocabulary because these words were almost certainly Arabized well before the seventh century A.D.

Two objections might be raised to the preceding list. First, each of the terms appears only in the Qur²an: identifying them as the seeds of large and complex mystical theories would seem excessive. Response: In the Qur an they are mutashābihāt, "ambiguous terms" that stop the reader and do not yield to the first analysis. The process of istinbat, the frequent, complete rereading of the text with a view to "swallowing" after much "chewing,"8 brings the intelligence, in the course of each new recitation, into violent contact with these words. The troublesome terms must be absorbed at any cost; therefore the verbal resources already assimilated by reading the rest of the Quran are made to crystallize around them. This phenomenon of crystallization occurs constantly in the mind of any careful reader, whether of a poem, code, or catechism: the difficult words are the important ones; when brought to light they are the key to the passage. The intelligence attacks them like knots in order to explain and understand the whole, eventually to participate in the guiding intention of the author.

Secondly, there is the objection that quotations of Qur³anic terms can be mere pretexts, smokescreens used by innovators to hide the extraneous sources of their condemnably borrowed theories. Response: With certain pseudo-mystics, the possibility of a more or less undeniable deception of this type is not to be excluded.⁹ But such a phenomenon of mental

^{6.} Talmudic or Christian; cf. below, sec. 1. c. See studies by Fraenkel; Dvorak.

^{7.} CA.M. Kindi has already pointed out istabraq, sundus, abāriq, namāriq, and the Abyssinian (sic) term mishkāt (Risāla, 95; cf. Ma^carrī, Malā²ika, 24). It is much less certain that the sidra (muntahā) is the "white Homā," or that the sirāt is the Chinvat Bridge; and one ought at least to decide between Darmesteter (Hautes Etudes XXIII), who makes Haurvatat into Hārūt, and Blochet, who turns the same word into al-Khidr...

^{8.} Cf. Kraemer (RMM XLIV, 51).

^{9.} Theosophical tendency, perceptible in the Mānī and Ihn Arabī, who fail to understand that access to a mystical goal depends above all on the judicious choice of one way, which strengthens the will in its unwavering aim. They imagine, to the contrary, that they will find surer access to union with the divinity by using all ritual means at once. This syncretist eclecticism prevents them from perceiving the gradual, irreparable, transforming differentiation along the road, between those who prostrate themselves on the "Way of the Cross" and those who are stretched out under the Juggernaut's chariot.

decay¹⁰ cannot provide the basis for a valid explanation of the growth of any religion's dogma. Every religion, like Islam, has at its foundation a specific body of "prophetic" preaching. From this source it offers each adept an identical structure intended for the realization ab intra of a way of life. The sructure is characterized by "individualizing points" on the basic design of the catechism, and by "vital points" of contact with social reaction. These points are marked precisely by the mutashābihāt, terms that are said to be ambiguous because each believer may elucidate their meaning through a devoted effort of his whole being: by engraving them onto his memory, testing them with his intellect, putting them to work in his conduct. Having asserted this, one may concede that certain lukewarm and disillusioned believers have made Qur²ānic mutashābihāt the locus for parasitic grafts, as they artificially joined foreign concepts to their decaying religious systems.

II) EARLY NAHW

The second source is all of the purely Arabic disciplines of the first development of Islamic civilization: early grammer (before Sībawayh), the reading of the Qur³ān, pre-Ḥanafite jurisprudence, and the critique of the hadīth (before Yaḥyā Qaṭṭān). 12 It was grammar that furnished the mystics with the specialized meanings of the following terms (some are Qur³ānic): damīr, huwa huwa, sifa (opp. wasf), ḥaqīqa (opp. majāz, maqāl), shāhid, (opp. mithāl), jamc (opp. farq), macrifa (opp. nakira), ḥulūl, ḥāl, rasm, cilla, khafī (opp. jalī, concerning shirk), tajallī, iqtirān, mulḥaq, ishāra. 13

III) EARLY KALAM

The third source is the purely Arab theological schools before 'Allāf and Nazzām: Khārijī and Murji'i, Qadarī and Jabarī. The words they clarified for the mystics are 'aql, 'adl, tawhīd, 'araḍ (opp. dhāt), sifa (opp. na't), sūra, (opp. ma'nä) qadīm (opp. muḥdath, Qur. 21:2), tanzih, 'azama, thubūt, wujūd (opp. 'adam). Other terms refer to very old legendary themes, crystallized by certain ḥadīth in the second century A.H.; we cannot be sure whether they came from pre-Islamic Arab or foreign sources. E.g.: subuḥāt al-wajh,

^{10.} Which enters religious consciences that are gnawed by doubt, during periods of decadence, not at a beginning.

^{11.} Cf. the verse of the shemac Israel.

^{12.} Alil, etc.

^{13.} Passion, Fr 3:13/Eng 3:6, and index.

durra baydā, kibrīt aḥmar, shabb qatāt, ism a^czam, ¹⁴ dīk abyad, ^canqā mughrib; ¹⁵ and invocations like yā munauwir al-qulūb, dalīl al-mutaḥayyirīn, ghāyat al-su²āl wa'l-ma²mūl. ¹⁶

IV) HELLENISTIC LEARNING

The fourth source is the scientific teaching of the time, presented in a sort of κοινή [koine], or technical Aramaic lingua franca, that eastern philosophical syncretism constructed little by little over the first six centuries A.D.¹⁷ by copying terms from either Greek or Persian. This syncretism is not exclusively Hellenistic, but contains Iranian (and perhaps Sogdian) elements; nor is it purely Neoplatonic or Hermetic, as some of its components are gnostic, "Bardaiṣanian," or Manichaean. It is more secular than religious, althouth it borrows certain Christian, pagan, and Mazdean ritual terms. It is one, with its disparate elements combined into a single encyclopedic classification. Examples are, in medicine, the Syro-Persian terms of the school of Jundisābūr; In the zodiac, kadkhodā (Persian), borrowed as the antithesis of haylāj (Greek: ὑλικός [hulikos]); It he books of Agathodemon (Hermeticism), which were combined with the books of Jāmāsp (Mazdeism).

Founded on the Aristotelian scientific canon and Hellenistic medicine and alchemy, these technical teachings were rapidly translated from the Aramaic into Arabic.²² They influenced Islam along two lines. Gnosticism (astrology, alchemy, talismans) affected extremist Shiite sects; metaphysics, Sunni theologians.²³ Examples:

- 14. Passion, see index.
- 15. Ibn al-Kalbt (ap. Ibn Mukarram, Lisān, see under canq) gives a pre-Islamic etymology; cA. M. Kindt (Risāla, 12) gives a Buddhist origin.
 - 16. Jawshan kabīr of Hādī Sabziwarī, lith. 1267, p. 75, 78, 393.
- 17. As early as the sixth century A.D. Aramaic was overcoming Greek in the Eastern dissident churches. In the eleventh century, Arabic would take its place.
 - 18. Daysāniyya of the Fihrist [cf. ch. 2 n 143].
- 19. Fundamental point: there was no direct, autonomous action of Greco-Syriac paganism or Persian Mazdeism on Islam; the propagating force of those two religions was already completely spent by that time. It was through the intermediary of Eastern philosophical syncretism that certain pagan and Mazdean terms were brought into Islam; they first had to encapsulated and cleansed by various initiatory teachings: Harranian gnosticism, eastern Manichaeism (which, at the same time, in the Byzantine lands, was producing the movement of the Paulicians-Bogomils) and neo-Mazdakian communism (the Khurramiyya, converted c. 245 by Dindān to Ismaili Qarmathianism). On the other hand, we shall see that for a brief period there may have been some direct action of Hinduism on Islam (see below, sec. 3.E).
 - 20. E.G. Browne, Arabian Medicine, 34-35 (cf. 28, 33).
 - 21. Passion, see index.
 - 22. Ibid., Fr 3: 14-15/Eng 3:7-8.
- 23. Mu^ctazilites; and even the Syrian monophysite Christian, like Yaḥyā ibn ^cAdī, who is a sort of pre-Averroist.

a) Literal borrowings. Arabic terms artificially diverted from their usual meanings (cilla, sūra, istihāla, idmihlāl, kawn [opp. fasād], tabī [the four temperaments], rawā ih [chemical effluvia]); Arabic equivalents forged from corresponding Arabic root-material (huwiyya, anniyya, talāshī, ta alluh, wahdāniyya); words simply transcribed and Arabized (jawhar, istaqsāt, kunnāsh).

Borrowings classified by subject: astrology (aflāk, adwār, akwār, nawrūz, zīj, ¹⁵ mihrijān, jawzahar, kardāj, etc.); medicine ²⁶ (kunnāsh [in Syriac = jāmī in Arabic], tawallud, nazar [opp. khabar], istidlāl, tarbiya [= cosmetics], aqrābādhīn, bazzahrd, tiryāq); logic (the ten categories, or dawā ir, of the pseudo-Empedocles); political morality (books of akhlāq, the Hellenized Fürstenspiegel of Anushirvan and Buzurjmihr; cf. Miskawayh; dīwān, wazīr); ²⁷ asceticism (jihād al-nafs of Ibn al-Muqaffa ; macrocosm and microcosm; anwār [celestial, incorruptible, spiritual substances, separate intelligences, ²⁸ as opposed to the ajsām in the works of cAli ibn Rabban and Jibrā l Bukhtyishū [Bukhtishū]; * Tadmīr al-maydān of Ibn Hayyān]).

b) Structural parallels. The doctrine of the opposites (light and darkness, books of maḥāsin wa aḍḍād); the discipline of the secret (starting with the Elchasaites and among the Manichaeans: katmān, ifshā al-sin); the doctrine of countable causes (without tasalsul, but with the negation of the [virtual or actual] infinite, beginning with Alī ibn Rabban), from which comes the role of causality in Hanafite law, sa well as medical etiology and therapeutics, perhaps imitated by the mystics for the "maladies of the heart"; the doctrine of the transmigration of souls that contaminates certain theologians, both Muctazilite (Ibn Hāyit, Ibn Yānūsh) and Qarmathian (Abū Yacqūb Sijzī allows it, if within a given species); spiritual, astrological determinism of movements and destinies: God himself cannot suspend the laws (falak) (therefore, the irresponsibility of souls [ibāḥa]). 12

^{*}See Browne's Chahar Magala, p. 145, on this name.

^{24.} See below, n 156 and related text.

^{25.} Zij shahryār, trans. Tamīmi.

^{26.} Fihr, 295.

^{27.} The analogies pointed out between figh and Romano-Byzantine law, between consensus prudentum and ijmā^c, between utilitas publica and maslaha, are only approximations.

^{28.} This specialization contradicts the usage of the mutakallimun, as well as Hinduism.

^{29.} Firdaws, ch. 7.

^{30.} Santillana.

^{31.} Bîrûni, Hind, 31.

^{32.} The same slightly Mazdean, fatalist nuance is found among the Qarmathians: irresponsibility in man corresponds, in God, to indeterminacy. The first Muslim mystics, on the other hand, believe in the free responsibility of man, predestined in God. And the Hindus exaggerate man's freedom so much that it becomes a power of liberating self-creation.

2. THE METHOD OF INTERPRETATION

A. The Guiding Principles: Chances of Error, Pseudo-Borrowings

The preceding inventory is no more that an attempt to classify the data of the problem to be solved. Only a complete study of the early Islamic mystics' authentic works (enumerated here in chapter 4) will permit us, as we construct the lexicon of their Arabic, to answer the endlessly argued question of foreign influences³³ on Sufism's development.

The philological method is the only one that will permit the presentation of serious evidence, i.e., evidence that will be able to bring the specialists into agreement if certain rules are strictly observed:³⁴

- i) After indicating literal coincidences between two texts and justifying them chronologically and geographically, one must still demonstrate that there was a real genealogical kinship between the thoughts carried in those texts. Without that demonstration, the question remains unanswered.
- ii) Gathering a list of items, accumulating examples of parallelism between the schematic formulas in two works, does not prove that a didactic relationship existed, that the two authors were teacher and pupil.
- iii) An observation after the fact (given results and ramifications in society) that the guiding intentions of two prominent mystics have converged does not show that an agreement was made, or a word given; in short, that there was collusion. Two sincerities can be alike, without allegiance, and both be right.

These rules must be observed by literary critics who wish to avoid confusing original work with plagiarism. Not all writers are pirates dealing in themes from legend. Novelists do not necessarily sink into unconscious ventriloquism in imagining they can invent (as it must be admitted they can); nor poets, in believing they hear an inspired voice from within.

The cautionary measures are even more important for a historian of scientific methods; without them he risks confusing the inventor's imagination with the skill of the man who puts the invention to valuable use, the industrialist with the engineer, the capitalist with the technician.

They are absolutely indispensable to anyone wishing to savor and compare the works of mystical writers. The scholar will not succeed as long as

^{33.} As foreign, that is, to the Arab world as to Islam. Imitation, ad extra; influence, ab intra.

^{34.} They do not seem to be strictly observed by Kremet, Culturgeschichtliche Streifzüge auf dem Gebiete des Islams [C.S.], 1873.

he only classifies technical terms and compares the structure of the authors' statements of dogma; he must personally redo the moral experiment,³⁵ reliving the experience by putting himself, at least hypothetically, in the place of his subjects, in order to gain a direct, axial understanding of the consequences of their rules for living.

In comparative literature, especially in the field of popular myth, it is admitted, a little too easily,³⁶ that imitation of X by Y, or borrowing, has taken place, on the sole evidence that identical separate elements, such as the princess with golden hair or Tom Thumb, are found at the same spot in the fabric of two different fairy tales. If this purely formal comparative method is to be adapted to the study of philosophical and mystical lexicons, it must be changed profoundly. Two sailors from different counties, on a brief shore leave, can swap stories in sign language in the time it takes to buy each other a drink. Two philosophers will communicate more slowly, have more trouble making contact, perhaps need time for reflection. Two mystics will understand each other with even more difficulty: they must form judgments of each other and test the sincerity with which they put their rules for living into practice. Each must see the results of the other's rule.

When a storyteller composes a fable — groups themes, characters, and anecdotes in certain circumstances of time and place — it is said that the fable has sprung entirely³⁷ from his creative fancy. No set of axioms justifying the arrangement of images needs to be assimilated in order for listeners to understand. Therefore the fable, though transposed into other idioms and civilizations, can still be recognized by its basic structure.

When a philosopher or learned man organizes his research and constructs a theory, the ideas collected are concepts that have been elaborated over time and removed from the material from which they were once abstracted. Their arrangement no longer depends upon a narrative sequence of specific occurrences, accepted in order and without argument, as in the case of fairy tales.³⁸ The ideas are arranged in general logical categories; another mind, in order to penetrate such a theory, must climb the scaffolding of its rational logic, discovering the base, joints, and niches along the way. For example, in order for a historian of scientific methods to affirm that the Arabs borrowed a certain algebraic solution from the Indians,

^{35.} Ghazzli explained this well in his Munqidh.

^{36.} Because the subject of these tales is not pure anarchic subjectivism. There are commonplaces for all of humanity, principles of probability for the imagination, a common sense assumed even in the wildest fantasies.

^{37.} Although in most countries an unprepared native audience cannot understand its own theater.

^{38.} And many listeners cease to enjoy even these, after experiencing real events that contradict the arbitrary narrative line.

he must show not only that the givens of the problem, as presented among both groups, more or less coincide, ³⁹ but that the structural process used to find the solution was the same. ⁴⁰

A fortion in mysticism. In my view, in order for Nicholson to assert that a tenuous introspective definition or a new technical differential, such as the fanā bī'l-Madhkūr of Sufism, was borrowed from India (Patañjali's dhyāna), he must show not only that the same isolated elements exist in two authors, as he would have to do in the case of pure, imaginative fancy; and that the constructive process used to introduce this new differential was analogous, as if the mystical definition were a hypothetical scientific postulate; but also that the authors demonstrated the convergence of their guiding intentions by an equal conviction in their rules for living, and, if they were contemporaries, that they personally showed a burning mutual desire to convince each other: 41 he must prove in effect that the two were interpermeable.

Moreover, mystics do not, like literary authors, only consider intellectual themes for their own sake,⁴² or, like scientists, only seek a solution that will generalize their ideas.⁴³ They consider the reality that practicing a constructive method can enable them to discover. One last, purely religious problem therefore arises: the reality that the mystic seeks is only known to have been achieved when we can observe the consequences, personal and social, of his life.

B. Some Fortuitous Coincidences

ISOLATED TECHNICAL HOMONYMS

i) By a fortuitous coincidence of two independent thoughts with a limited register of corresponding images 44

The primordial point: kha (Sanskrit); neqodā rishōnā (talmudic); nuqṭa aṣliyya (Ḥallāj): coincidental terms, without any real kinship among their respective processes of formation.

- 39. Because the problem will arise a priori in every thoughtful mind independently undertaking an examination of the science in question.
- 40. Since there may be several independent processes leading to the same result (the demonstrations of a proposition, in mathematics; the various routes of an ascent, in mountain climbing).
- 41. This is the true mystical goal of sincere apologetics (cf. Leibniz and Bossuet, and, more deeply, the cases cited in RMM XXXVI, 57). The poetic outrageousness of the Arabs overshoots this goal in the odd legend of the two friends mentioned by Stendhal (De l'amour, book 2, ch. 53, "fragments"), excerpting from the Kitāb al-Aghānī [Fr. Le Livre des chansons].
 - 42. Art for art's sake.
- 43. The passion for discovery; for the hunt (more than the catch), for the game (more than the stakes), for the search (more than the truth).
 - 44. Images of universal human experience.

The archtypical man: insān qadīm (Manichaean); adam qadmōn (Kab-bala); insān kāmil (Jīlī): same remark.⁴⁵

ii) By borrowing for a particular purpose, without subsequent parallels of usage

The Highest name of God: shem hamforash, or the ineffable tetragram (Kabbala); ism a^czam (Sufism).

The column of light: "central column" (Talmud); "column of praise" (var. cāmūd al-subh: Manichaean; cāmūd al-nūr: Tustarī); the role of the dawn in the Nusayrī theogony.

The sparkling of wine (tasha^cshu^c) poured into a cup: symbol of theophany, through talbīs and takhmīr (as much for the Nuṣayrīs as for the Sufis) = the opalization or irisation of the (human) water into which the divine wine is poured (Passion, Fr 3:49, 53 I 24, 308 n 3, 353 n 1/Eng 3:41, 45 I 23, 290 n 74, 335 n 10).

Decorative motifs such as these, set into two systems of dogma, do not necessarily play the same role in both contexts. During a plea, if a lawyer takes up the opposing party's position word for word, he is not implying that it is as valid as his own. The habit does not make the monk, nor the note the song: we could not infer, simply because two authors have used the same words,⁴⁸ that there was even an understanding between them; experimental verification is required.

PARALLELS IN THE MANNER OF PRESENTATION

i) By natural, functional coincidence, when reason is properly exercised by both mystics on the same body of typical patterns with common themes (life, death, distributive justice)

These parallels are mentioned by Ghazālī in his Munqidh, 49 on the sub-

^{45.} Cf. the invocation "God of gods, Lord of lords," which is found simultaneously among the Sabians (Ibn al-Ṣabbāḥ, ap. Shahrastānī, 11, 47) and the Sufis (Ibn Adham, ap. Passion, Fr 3:15/ Eng 3:8). Cf. the zuhūr kulū, the "clothing of spiritual light," which is found, having appeared by different processes, in Christianity, in Manichaeism, among the Sufis (Junayd, "Dawā": libās alnūr; kiswa of Ḥallāj and Wāsitī), and among the Yogis (Patañjali, 11, sec. 52). A fortiori we must absolutely refuse to see borrowings in paired words like "divine light," "illumination of the heart," "silence and solitude," and "God and the Beloved," which are common to mystics all over the world. Merx, Andrae, and Wensinck (Dove, P. lx.xiv, 11), seduced by Reitzenstein's hypothesis that the initiation rites of all forms of early Asian religious mysticism had a common source, applied it inappropriately and supposed ir confirmed the opinion that such word-pairs were borrowings, as had already been suggested by certain esoterically minded historians of freemasonry in the beginning of the nineteenth century.

^{46.} Passion, Fr 3:301/Eng 3:283; Kremer, C.S., 39.

^{47.} Dussaud, Noseïris, 88.

^{48.} The problem of homonyms and synonyms (Passion, Fr 3:93 ff./Eng 3:82 ff.).

^{49.} Cairo edition, p. 19; here B. de Meynard's translation (p. 38) is insufficient [Recueil, p. 94].

ject of some maxims he was said to have stolen from ancient philosophers: "The truth is that some of them⁵⁰ are the fruit of my own meditations, and, as the proverb says, 'The hoof sometimes⁵¹ falls in the hoofprint.'" In other words, the range of the intellectual process and the rhythm of discursive thought are more or less commensurable and synchronous in those devoted to serious reflection, since the operation of reason is the sole means of understanding among men. Science—true, experimental science—is not the precarious and artificial result of a blind entangling of atoms. It is a collective conceptual construction that is always growing; since its beginnings we have been working on it together, and that work is at the very heart of our being as thinking creatures. We assimilate and elaborate our individual experiences according to analogous processes, in order to put them into accord. For example:

Perinde ac cadaver ["like the corpse"]: 52 "Mithl al-mayit fi yaday al-ghāsil," said Tustarī, well before St. Francis of Assisi and St. Ignatius of Lo-yola. Asin struggled to discover a common source (St. Nilus and St. John Climacus), but for solitary men living in groups and dying without grave-diggers, the case was of sufficient immediacy to suggest the image.

Breath control: Patañjali's prānāyāma, rhythmic dhikr on the breathing pattern "hū! hā! hī!" in modern Islamic orders, and recitation of the Lord's prayer in the exercises of St. Ignatius Loyola. Patañjali practiced this discipline to make the will master the reflex of breathing, because he considered⁵³ the link between breath (prāna) and the actualization of thought (vnti) to be indissoluble. The Muslims practice it to concentrate their ecstatic hearing (samā^c) because, during recitation, the alternation of breathing⁵⁴ best scans the heart's three vocalizations of the divine H. St. Ignatius practiced breath control⁵⁵ to tighten the frame around his mental contemplation by fixing the manner of recitation and the average length of prayers said aloud. The three motives and goals are different; the only common trace is regularization of breathing. All mystics are ascetics: they know that they have bodies to tame and that as long as the human body lives, it breathes.

ii) By borrowing, to rival each other in zeal and discover who is right

^{50. &}quot;Some others," he adds, "are found on our books of sacred law (al-kutub al-shar ciyya); and most, as to their meaning, figure in the writing of the Sufis."

^{51.} Often, not always, not for everyone. This is not the relativism of Protagoras.

^{52.} Asin, Bosquejo..., Zaragoza, 1903, 38–39; Goldziher, Vorlesungen, Eng. trans. 132 n 51; Hartmann, Darstellung des Süfitums, 31, 103; Kilani (ap. Shattanawli, Bahja, 79); Rinn, Marabouts, 90.

^{53.} It is an asceticism of the breath, not of the heart (anāhata, seat of the sattva: Yoga III, sec. 34), as in Islam. Cf. Kremer (C.S., 49).

^{54.} Cf, the regular swaying of the torso of a child reciting a lesson in Qur anic school.

^{55.} Spiritual Exercises, fourth week, third method of prayer.

For example:

Vegetarianism (tanahhus):⁵⁶ common to Christian, Manichaean, and Muslim ascetics. Among the Manichaeans, as St. Augustine indicates,⁵⁷ its exact purpose was to free the points of divine light imprisoned like captives in the dark matter of the vegetables. The disciples of St. Anthony gave it an entirely different meaning, that of bodily mortification for the ascetic himself. The Muslims agreed with the Christians, with certain nuances:⁵⁸ a sort of "perpetual vow" of vegetarianism (qūt) was the means by which the members of a Shiite mystical sect, the Abdakiyya Sufis of Kūfa, bore witness to the ardor of their wait for the imminent coming of the Mahdī.

CONVERGENCES OF GUIDING INTENTION

i) By concordance in the development of morals and dogma

For example:

The wager (on the hypothesis of eternal life): Pascal and Ghazālī, moved by the same apologetic compassion for unbelievers, formulated this idea in the same terms and patterns, although Pascal knew nothing of Ghazālī.60

ii) By legitimate borrowing

The borrower feels the richness of an argument barely outlined in the book in which he finds it; having meditated, he in turn takes it up, strengthens it, gives it full weight. Some of Ghazali's arguments that remained sterile in Islam were made fertile in this way by the Jew, Bahya ben Paquda, 61 and the eastern Christian Bar Hebraeus. 62 The same arguments gave better results to the coreligionists of the two borrowers than to those of the inventor. Another example:

The replacement of the hajj (the pilgrimage of sacred law) by devotional activity, a thesis of Ḥallāj's school of mysticism: An outstanding ex-

^{56.} Ibn Sida, Mukhassas, XIII, 101.

^{57.} Confessiones, III, 10; VIII, 6; cf. VII, 9, his remarks on the Christian logos and its Neoplatonic homonym.

^{58.} Ascetic rivalry (to convince the adversary of the superiority of one's doctrine, by struggling to show greater abnegation) implies no doctrinal concession. Roberto de Nobili's method [cf. below, n 240], understood in this way, has no relation to the "Chinese rites" and "Malabar rites," both dangerous experiments.

^{59.} Malatl, £ 162.

^{60.} Asin tried to find, in either the Pugio fidei or Herbelor, the intermediary who might have introduced Ghazīli to Pascal... with no success.

^{61.} See his Hidaya.

^{62.} Wensinck, The Book of the Dove.

ample of guiding intention outlined by predecessors (in order to combat the cumum al-maghfira's lax inclinations)63 and given full weight by Hallaj himself. It first appears with Hasan Basri, who remarks⁶⁴ that the only "blessed pilgrimage" (haji mabrūr) is the one from which the pilgrim returns as an ascetic in this world and desiring the next life. Ibn al-Munkadir⁶⁵ calls this pilgrimage "the one that wins passage to Paradise." Soon we find moral counselors giving practical advice of greater and greater boldness: Abū Hāzim Madanī advises a young man to abandon the pilgrimage and devote the money intended for travel expenses to supporting his mother. 66 Bishr Hāfi suggests⁶⁷ that a large sum hoarded for the pilgrimage⁶⁸ be distributed as alms. In a very lovely parable, Dhū'l-Nūn Misrī speaks⁶⁹ of a man from Damascus who gave up the pilgrimage in order to relieve the distress of a famished neighbor hic et nunc. The mystic says that God, solely for the sake of this man, who had "made the pilgrimage in spirit" (hajja bihimmatihi), granted a pardon to the pilgrims gathered at Arafat that year. Finally Ibn Atā, commenting on a gloss by Jacfar on Qur. 3:96, notes, "Whoever has deprived himself of everything for God sees the road of the hajj open wide before him, for there is the foundation (qiwam) of the call (to all Muslims) to the hajj."70 Hallaj's thesis, which I have analyzed elsewhere at length,71 is the correct dogmatic conclusion to be drawn from these premises.72

3. THE ROLE OF FOREIGN INFLUENCES

A. The a priori Thesis of Iranian Influence

The proper share of certain external influences on Islamic mysticism remains to be assigned.

- 63. Repudiated by Ramli (Passion, Fr 3:223 n 11/Eng 3:211 n 266).
- 64. Makki, Qüt, II, 119.
- 65. Ibid., 11, 115, 118.
- 66. Hujwīrī, Kashf, 91.
- 67. Makki, Qūt, I, 92. One of the Sālimiyya, probably at the time of the Qatmathian occupation of Mecca, advised giving up the pilgrimage "rather than aiding the enemies of Islam" Ibid., II, 117, I. 23). The advice was recently (after 1916) followed by opponents of the Malik of the Hijāz.
- 68. "Supplementary" or "surplus," says Makki's text, which seems, to attenuate the advice incautiously.
- 69. Ibn al-Jawzī Muthīr al-gharām, ap. Ibn Arabī, Muḥāḍarāt, I, 218. Cf. Alī ibn al-Muwaffaq (Makki, Qūt, II, 120-21).
 - 70. Baqli, I, 107.
 - 71. Passion, index, s.v. hajj.
- 72. When that conclusion was condemned, Makki defined the purity of real intention (haqiqat al-ikhlāt) required for the pilgrimage (Qît, 11, 115) as follows: "spending legitimate wealth for the love of God, keeping one's hand empty of all barter that might preoccupy the heart and distract the attention (hann)."

Ghazālī⁷³ defines mysticism as the thorough, inner examination of religious experiments and of their results in the practicing believer. If we adopt his definition, we must recognize that in any religious milieu where there are sincere and thoughtful souls, cases of mysticism will be observed. Therefore, it is impossible for mysticism to be the exclusive privilege of one race, language, or nation. It is a human phenomenon, on the level of the spirit, that those physical boundaries could not contain. We cannot accept the exact sense of the overly popular theory of pro-Aryans like Gobineau and anti-Semites like Friedrich Delitzsch,74 that the Semitic peoples are completely unfit for the arts and sciences in general,75 and that mysticism in the Semitic religions is of Aryan origin. Naturally, the theorists deny the authenticity of Islamic mysticism, which is portrayed as a form of the racial, linguistic, and national reaction by the Aryan peoples, particularly the Iranians, against the Arab Islamic conquest. Renan, P. de Lagarde, and more recently Reitzenstein, Blochet, and E.G. Browne, have helped to spread this theory.76

It is an a priori theory that wrongly generalizes from a few special cases. 77 It assumes the indemonstrable idea that Iran in the seventh century A.D. was peopled solely by Aryans with an entirely Aryan culture. 78 In reality Shiism, which is presented to us as a specifically Persian Islamic heresy, was propagated in Persia by pure Arab colonists, who had come from Kūfa to Qum. 79 The Kurds and Afghans, pure Iranians by race, have always been anti-Shiite. The lists of great Muslim thinkers said to be of "Persian origin," because their nisba refers to a city in Persia, are misleading. 80 Most of these men thought and wrote only in Arabic, and were no more separate from the Islamic world, whether they were the sons of clients (mawālī) 181 or Arab colonists, than was Lucan of Cordova or Augustine of Tagaste from the Roman. Incensed heresiographers 182 have imagined numerous "Mazdean survivals" that "conspirators" are supposed to have smuggled into Islam; Firdawsi's Shāhnāmeh, celebrated as the hand-

^{73.} Mungidh.

^{74.} Die Grosse Tauschung.

^{75.} The distinct Semitic reserve in these matters is not lack of imagination but respectful deference to the initiative of divine omnipotence.

^{76.} The only person who has tried to support the theory with precise arguments is Inostranzev, Iranian Influence on Moslem Literature, trans. G. K. Nariman, Bombay, Taraporevala, 1918.

^{77.} Diffusion of technical procedures in architecture, carpet making, metallurgical arts, floral decoration (narcissus preferred to the rose), the musical scale, the setting for stories (Hezārafsāneh).

^{78.} Neither physical nor cultural anthropologists accept this.

^{79.} Goldziher, Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., 212 n 125.

^{80.} The Panturanians have recently raised the stakes, claiming Farabi, Ibn Sīnā, Bukhāri, and Zamakhsharī as Tartar national treasures . . . Even the Shu übiyya used to speak of equality.

^{81.} On the Arabization of mawali, see Goldziher, M. Stud. I, 101 ff., 147 ff.

^{82.} Baghdadí.

book of this Iranian nationalism, 83 demonstrates above all an archeological enthusiasm, almost as impartial as the Trojan patriotism of Virgil writing the Aeneid.

Finally, this theory, supposedly erected to the glory of the Iranian race, would lead us to perceive unconscious disloyalty in its most illustrious representatives. The theory insinuates that the great Muslim thinkers of Iran, contrary to their explicit statements, gave allegiance only for appearances' sake to orthodox Islam, and that they made considerable efforts to twist and mold it to their narrow, national bias. The explanation is psychological, and it will not convince anyone who has lived in intimacy with the works of these great men. No one's loyalty is greater than Sībawayh's in Arabic grammar, Isfahānī's in Arab folklore, Ṭabari's and Fakhr Rāzī's in Qurānic exegesis. These Persians did nothing to alter the purity of early Islam; in fact they went to greater lengths than anyone else in self-denial and the sacrifice of personal inclinations, in order to safeguard the universalism of their beliefs. It would be rather presumptuous to argue that they did not succeed.⁸⁴

The limited truth, unduly generalized by the theory of Aryan superiority, is that the general grammatical characteristics (vocabulary, morphology, syntax) of our Indo-European languages determine that when an idea is expressed in them, its outer form will differ entirely from its clothing in a Semitic language. The idea's Aryan presentation, the only one familiar to Western orientalists, is periphrastic, made of words with unstable, shaded contours and changeable endings, words fit for apposition and combination. Very early on, verbal tenses in these languages became relative to the agent, egocentric, polytheistic; the words also have a didactic order, and are arranged in long hierarchical periods by means of graduated conjunctions. The Semitic presentation of the idea is gnomic, employing rigid words with immutable and always noticeable roots. The few changes allowed are internal and abstract: consonants are interpolated for the general meaning, vowels altered for the precise shade. The conjunctive role of particles is inseparable from the vocalic changes in endings; verbal tenses,

^{83.} The works of supposed nationalists like Ibn al-Muqassa^c, Rūdagī, Miskawayh, Hasan Şabbāḥ are filled with a universalist spirit, either Hellenistic or Qatmathian. Even an arch-nationalist like the poet Mihyār Daylamī was writing characteristically when he finished a line, "sūdad al-Furswa dīn al-Sarab," [Glory is ours from both sides] "Persian noble titles (in this world), and the Arabs' religion (for the next life)!"

^{84.} We find what are basically the same stages of a growing "mobilization" of the literary theme, among Aryans and Semites: epic (= qaṣīda), drama (= qiṣṣa alternating between prose and verse), romance (= maqāma); in the first stage, only the memory of the listener is involved; in the second, the actor or reciter goes to work on the intelligence of the spectator; in the third, the reader's will itself is seized. But among the Aryans the form is capricious and the foundation precise; while among Semites the form is rigid, the foundation capricious, unreal.

^{85.} Passion, Fr 3:90 ff./Eng 3:79 ff.

even today, are absolute (they concern only the action) and theocentric (they affirm the transcendence and imminence of the One Agent); and finally, word order is lyrical, with phrases parceled into staccato formulas, condensed and autonomous. Whence the misunderstanding of those who, unable to perceive the powerful, explosive concision of Semitic languages, pronounce them unfit for mysticism. They are, after all, the languages of revelation of the transcendent God, of the Prophets, ⁸⁶ and of the Psalms. And the Psalms, historically, are the mystical text most widely known among men. ⁸⁷ In Islam, the Fātiḥa is a psalm, ⁸⁸ the two suras of Ubayy are psalms, as are the mu^cawwidhatayn. The munājāt of the first Sufis are psalms as well.

Unable to hold the racial and national ground, the partisans of Iranian influence retreat to linguistic territory; they can show only that certain languages (Semitic) are less appropriate than others (Aryan) for the didactic exposition of ideas; a rather secondary observation in religious matters, particularly in mysticism. Like Christianity, Islam has been preached in all languages, including those least like Arabic, ⁸⁹ most stripped of grammar, such as Chinese. Mysticism, more than any proselytizing mission, can do without long grammatical periods; in the extreme case, onomatopoeia is enough: the cry that is understood if it is from the heart. ⁹⁰

In neither the grammar nor the literature of the conquered provinces was there a serious reaction against the Arab conquerors' Islamic doctrine. For one or two generations, almost imperceptibly, writers of Greek (Syria) and Persian⁹¹ (or huzvaresh in Mesopotamia) continued to be employed at keeping the financial records concerning deeds to land, just long enough for new civil servants capable of writing Arabic to be trained. The Raq-qäshī family, famous preachers in Persian, would quickly learn to excel in Arabic sermons on the Qur³ān, in Baṣra.⁹²

B. Requirements for Demonstrating Foreign Influence

In summary: In order to prove that a linguistic influence from a foreign

^{86.} Wensinck (Dove, p. xlvi) goes very far in his search for a Hermetic origin of an image in Bar Hebraeus, who is alluding to Ezekiel's "Ancient of Days."

^{87.} Wensinck (Dove, p. xxii) omits reference to this.

^{88.} A bitter enemy like A. M. Kindi (Risāla, 141) admits this without realizing it.

^{89.} The Panturanians succeeded in writing perfectly orthodox Muslim catechisms in pure Turkish.

^{90.} Popular preachers do not take lessons in diction or rhetoric.

^{91.} Muqaddasi, 133.

^{92.} Jāḥiz, Bayān, I, 168: though Ḥasan Baṣrl sometimes spoke in Persian (Ibn Sacd, VII, 123), Ḥallāj no longer had fluent use of the language (Passion, Fr 1:212-13/Eng 1:168). List of the great mawālī ap. Elad, II, 64.

source entered, permeated, and operated within a system of dogma in a given milieu, it must be shown:⁹³

- i) historically, that there was daily social contact and ferment between the two milieux. If this contact was not intellectual, it must at least have been practical; at a certain time, translators must have effected a transposition, borrowing stories and verbal elements from the foreign idiom.
- ii) philosophically, that religious disputants and apologists adapted various concepts and partial, incompletely formulated theories from the foreign idiom. It is therefore important that this idiom should have contained, directed, and transported analogous dogmatic constructions. Only such an intellectual and moral affinity ⁹⁴ makes possible a hybridization of the conquered milieu and the religion of the conquerors.

The first condition is met for the Aramaic (and the Arabic) of the Jewish and Christian circles (desert tribes, manufacturing colonies in cities), as well as the Mazdean (huzvaresh) and especially Manichaean circles (manufacturing colonies in cities), which were allied to the schools of eastern syncretism (dispersed physicians and philosophers). The condition is not met for the Pracrits of India (only one Indian merchant colony: Başra). 95

By the criteria of that condition, the Hebrew-Christian milieu was the most important in relation to early Islam, because, at the time, it possessed analogous sketches of theology ⁹⁶ and theoretical mysticism, and above all an admirable and widely read manual of prayer, the Psalms. In the second rank were the syncretist Helleno-Manichaeans, who were trying to annex theology and mysticism to their synthetic philosophy.

C. The Hebrew-Christian Milieu: Asceticism and Theology

We must first examine the possible influence on the Muslim believers' ritual intentions of the Hebrew-Christian group, the Arabic or Aramaic-speaking ahl al-kitāb, with whom the Quran specifically authorizes 97 the pursuit of exegetical discussion. In practice, even conscientious commen-

^{93.} RMM, XXXVI, 40 ff.; Passion, Fr 3:7, 257/Eng 3:xii, 243.

^{94.} This would be a tolerable definition of a word much abused since Goethe.

^{95.} Nor for Syria's peasants, who are supposed to have remained pagan (?), according to Dussaud's rash hypothesis: his equation Nazireni-Nuşayri falls apart because, as I discovered in the field, the jur'at al-Nāzirān, northwest of lake Hums, still exists, without any geographical or etymological connection to the country of the Nusayris (RMM, XXXVIII, 272).

^{96.} There is no precise textual basis for Kremer and Becker's hypothesis on Christian theology's influence on Machad and Ghaylan (Qadari school). Galtier, in his study of the *Thousand and One Nights (Mémoires*, Cairo, 178–79), has shown the inanity of the "Talmudism" that Chauvin supposes to be in the legend of Mālik ibn Dīnār.

^{97.} Qur. 10:94; 5:18. See a work by Biqa 1 allowing references to Christian and Jewish scripture, in order to avoid the wave of hadth qudsi (cf. Steinschneider, Pol., 390). Biqa 1, Nazm al-durar.

tators like Mujāhid⁹⁸ and Muqātil⁹⁹ were reproached for these discussions, which were called dangerous. But a series of historical and legendary examples establishes the reciprocal curiosity, the awareness of an intellectual and moral affinity, that I believe to be indispensable for the beginning of doctrinal hybridization between two milieux.

Geiger, 100 Kaufmann, 101 Merx, 102 Wensinck, and Hirschfeld 103 have insisted on this affinity, for the Hebraic milieu; Merx, Asin, and Becker, 104 for the Christian.

HEBREW-CHRISTIAN ELEMENTS¹⁰⁵ (IN ARABIZED ARAMAIC FORM)¹⁰⁶

- i) Literal borrowings (theological and ascetic words). Arabized words (nouns ending in -ān, or of the form fā^cūl; adjectives ending in -ānī): Qur²ān, Rahmān, ṭūfān, furqān, burhān, sulṭān; lāhūt, nāsūt, nāmūs; fārūq, jabrūt, malakūt; hākūl (haykal); kawn (= kyānā, meaning both nature and person); ṭūbä, rabbānī, rūḥānī, naſsānī, juthmānī, sha^csha^cānī; waḥdāniyya, ſardāniyya, rahbāniyya; ^cubūdiyya, rubūbiyya, ulūhiyya, kayſūſiyya. And
- Arabic words borrowed from Aramaic patterns or types, and then specialized: $s\bar{a}^2ih$, $r\bar{a}hib$, $ghul\bar{a}m$, (deacon), $sawma^ca$, $sawma^ca$,
- ii) Structural analogies. Eschatological meditations on Hell and Paradise (Qur²ān; literature of the kutub al-zuhd, al-ahwāl, al-tawahhum);¹⁰⁷ methods for the examination of conscience (muḥāsabat al-nafs);¹⁰⁸ scapular (khirqa, beginning with Ibn Ḥarb);¹⁰⁹ rosary (subḥa, beginning with Junayd); the talmudic rule of the blue and black threads for breaking the fast; Farqad's
 - 08. Dhahabi, Ictidal.
 - 99. Muqātil, mutashābih, explanation of the sakīna.
 - 100. Was hat Mohammed aus dem Judenthum aufgenommen, 1833.
 - 101. Gesch. der Attributenlehre in der Jud. Relig., 1877.
 - 102. Grundlinien der Sufik, 1892.
 - 103. Jüdische Elem., 1878; New Researches, 1902.
 - 104. Der Islam, III, 374-99; Christentum und Islam.
 - 105. We give the terms that figure in the Quran first.
- 106. Note the general "warping" of the radicals' meaning, as they pass from Aramaic into Arabic: RHM (love; compassion); SBR (hope; endurance); FRQ (to save; to separate); HMD (to thank; to glorify); SDD (equity; exactitude).
- 107. In which Muslim ascetics are not trying to imitate Christian monks but to be their rivals in rahbāniyya, in accordance with a Muslim method inspired by the Quran.
- to 8. Asin transforms the analogy into a borrowing and presumes that St. Ignatius of Loyola copied his way of noting personal examination, on a double-entry table, from Suhrawardi (Bosquejo, 40). As if the idea of a double-entry table were not a commonplace of any rational method. 109. V.i.

110. V.i.

112. Ta wil, pp. 262, 270, 181.

114. Bahja, ms. Damascus.

sūf (Christian tendency); 110 the muraqqa^ca. The Arabic Gospel translations used in Islam¹¹¹ at the beginning (Ibn Qutayba, 112 Warrāq, Sulamī, ¹¹³ Ibn Jahḍam, ¹¹⁴ Ibn Ḥazm, Ghazālī) have not yet been studied seriously. Wensinck is now trying to prove that Stephen bar Sudaili, Isaac of Ninevah, and St. John Climacus were read by Muslims. ¹¹⁵ I have pointed out Aramaisms in Junayd's syntax. ¹¹⁶

iii) Fertile hybridizations. During the first two centuries, Arab Muslims and their Christian compatriots lived among one another in Taghlib, Hīra, Kūfa,117 Najrān,118 Sancā.119 It seems established that hermitage architecture was copied; the first khāngāh were at Ramla (Abū Hāshim) and Jerusalem (Ibn Karrām). Until about 250/864120 Muslim mystics went to consult Christian hermits on theology: Abd al-Wähid ibn Zayd, Attābī, and Dārāni recorded curious encounters, 121 While the anecdote about Bistāmī in Rūm122 may be apocryphal, 123 the one about Hallāj in Jerusalem appears to be authentic.124 The caliphal decrees125 requiring distinctive clothes for Christians put an end to this life in common. Muhammad ibn Faraj Abid (d. 282 A.H.), answering Muhammad ibn Ishāq Kūfi, 126 asked, "From what source does such wisdom (hikma) come to damned monks?" "Legacy of the fast, which you find so painful." And Ibrahim ibn al-Junayd (died c. 270), editor of the Kitāb al-ruhbān of Burjulānī (d. 283), said 127 he found as an epigraph to one of Burjulani's books (that same book, no doubt) these meaningful lines: Mawācizu ruhbān ...

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mously published book on Sufism, I Myrten-trädgården, Stockholm. The great Geschichte der christlichen
arabischen Literatur by Georg Graf (Rome, 1952) is a valuable source for the Arab period, to be com-
bined with the recent discoveries in the Sinai (cf. Mourad Kamil, Les Mardis de Dar el-Salam, II
[1952], Cairo, 205-18).
   116. Passion, ch. 14, Ft 3:357/Eng 3:339.
   117. Lammens, Mocawia, 156, 256, 300, ff. Cf. studies of L Cheikho.
   118. Mission of Euphernion (Ibn Arabi, Muliadarat, I, 131, 94; RHR, XXVIII, 13).
   119. Ibn Arabi, Muhādarāt, I, 182.
   120. Afterwards, the "visit to the convent" is no more than a Bacchic theme for poetry.
   121. Ibn Arabi, Muliadarat, II, 353-54, 39.
   122. Ms. Paris 1911.
   123. Like the stories of Hasan Başri's conversion and Macrus's burial in Attar.
   124. Passion, Fr 1:162-63, 3:233/Eng 1:121-22, 3:220.
   125. De Goeje, Conquête de la Syrie, 148.
   126. Cf. I'tidal, s.v.
   127. Hilya, under the name Muhammad ibn Faraj Abid.
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115. Cf. Nöldeke, Aran. lit., in Kult. Gegenw., 113. Since Wensinck (on Isaac of Ninevah), no one has pursued the study of possible Syriac models (hagiography, discourses on morals, philosophy). Tor Andrae undertook research on the subject, echoes of which are found in his posthu-

111. For Christian recensions, see, Graf, Christlich. Arab. Lit., 1905.

113. Jawami, ms. Laleli 1516, f. 165b (= Matt. 8:22).

Monks' sermons, accounts of their acts,
true tidings from condemned souls.

Sermons that cure us as we gather them,
though the prescription comes from someone damned.

Sermons from which the soul inherits a warning (cibra)
that leaves it anxious, wandering among the tombs.

Sermons, though the soul hates to be reminded of them.
that incite the heart they have discovered to suffering.

Take this for yourself, you who understand me: If you know how to defend yourself from evil,

hurry! Death is the first visitor to be expected.

[Recueil, 1929, 14-15]

A certain number of ascetic Islam's early works seem to be free transpositions of Christian writings: the Ṣaḥā̄'if Idrīs wa Mūsā, Wahb's false Psalter (Zabūr), 128 and his Mubtadā and Isrā'īliyāt; the Akhbār al-māḍiyīn of the Murji'ite CUbayd Jurhumī, 129 and especially the parables attributed to Jesus, which Asin published under the title Logia D. Jesu agrapha, of which almost identical versions can be found in Dustuwā'i (d. 153), Muḥāsibī, (d. 243), and Jāḥiz (d. 255). 130

D. Near-Eastern Syncretism: Sciences, Philosophy, Hermeticism

Muslim believers had an affinity for a second group, the technical teachers (medicine, alchemy, abstract mathematics, astrology) of the Near-Eastern syncretist milieu defined above. Renan, working with Chwolsohn's confused data, was the first to perceive the milieu's existence; 13th Horovitz 132 and Wensinck 133 have recently defined its characteristics. It held the precious deposits of the corpus or organon of the science of nature, which, as a descendent of Hellenistic experimentation, was cast in the Aristotelian mold. The Neoplatonists had already, in the third century, annexed certain elements of Hermeticism; 134 the Manichaeans, in the fourth century, astrological and gnostic elements (Renan says "Elcha-

^{128.} Ibn Arabi, Muhāḥarāt, I, 237; cf. Ghazālī, Iļiyā. Cf. mss. Oxford Nicoll 79; London Supp. 261; Paris 1397 (Cheikho).

^{129.} Fihrist, 89.

^{130.} Asin, Logia, nos. 6, 53; Muhāsibī, Nasā²ili, 6b; Bayan, 111, 72.

^{131.} JAP, 1853, 5th series, II, 430.

^{132.} Über den Einfluss der griechish. Philos. auf die Entwickl. des Kalam, 1909.

^{133.} Book of the Dove.

^{134.} I have grouped some pieces of information in appendix 3 of Festugière's Hennétisme, Paris, 1943, 184-400, to be complemented by P. Kraus, Jābir, Cairo (1FAO).

saite").* In the sixth century, the corpus itself, literally translated from the Greek into Aramaic during the Syriac national awakening, was being taught in the same way at various centers in Syria, Mesopotamia, and the area of Susa; these were medical, alchemical, and semi-initiatory centers where Jewish and Christian (especially Nestorian) teachers came into contact with semi-pagans (Harrānians), Bardaiṣanians (dayṣāniyya), and Manichaeans.¹³⁵

Upon making this contact with Jews and Christians, the Muslims hesitated somewhat to imitate them. Throughout the second century of the Hijra, some isolated individuals, some zanādiqa, Ibn abī'l-ʿAwjā, Ibn al-Muqaffac, Jābir, and, to a lesser extent, the extremist Shiites, took the risk. Ibn Mucāwiya adopted the astronomical calculation of the new moon. 136 Jābir used isolated letters of the alphabet to represent, in fixed systems of notation (alchemical, algebraic, syllogistic, 137 and medical), 138 the permanent natural functions of things. 139 Finally, Ibn al-Hakam rediscovered the Aristotelian theory of the process of sensation (mizāj al-ajsām) and perceived the immateriality of the concept (sunħ).

It was only in the third century that a work of fiction adapted from the Qur²an, the romance of the Sabians, allowed the generalization of contacts between Islam and the scientific syncretist milieux. The school of Harran, persecuted in 148 and 159, 140 was summarily ordered to convert to Islam; in 208 its members succeeded in convincing the Caliph Ma²mūn that they were descended from the monotheistic Sabians mentioned in the Qur²an¹⁴¹ and that they should have the same status as Christians and Jews, with whom debate was legal.

The ruse worked. In the same period, an Ibadite from Fars, Yazīd ibn abī Unaysa, announced 142 the imminent arrival of true "Sabianism," "not

- *On this point, it seems (since the deciphering of the Codex Manichaicus Coloniensis in 1970) that Renan may well have been right as to the origin of these elements, since the Mughtasila of al-Hasih (see Fibriat, p. 340), among whom Manl was raised, are now known to be identical to the Elchasaites of Christian heresiography; on the question of the identity or nonidentity of the sects Elchasaites, Mughtasila, Mandaeans, Sabians (Sābat al-Botā²lh), see, e.g., S. N. C. Lieu, Manichaeism, 30–32. None of which answers the question that Massignon raises (see ch 2 n 143) of amalgamations within Muslim tradition of Bardaisan and Ibn Maymūn, both of whom were referred to as Ibn Daysān.
 - 135. Cf. the odd, semi-Manichaean gospel fragment, in Ikhwan al-safa, IV, 115-17.
 - 136. This work, p. 141.
 - 137. Which makes the old grammarians indignant (Yaqut, Udabā, III, 105-24, after Tawhidi).
 - 138. Tables of medicines.
- 139. Which presupposes the concept of nature (table), of the natural properties of things (a concept absent from early Muslim kalām). It is the idea of jafr rationalized (cf. Passion, Fr 3:105/Eng 3:95, and the idea of Ars magna in Ramon Lull); see the collation given at the end of this chapter.
 - 140. Destruction of its great shrine.
- 141. Qur. 2:59; 5:73; 22:17; seeming to mean, according to Birūnī (Āthār), the Mandaeans or Mughtasila of Wāsit [known since 1970 to be a false identification].
 - 142. Shahrastani, I, 183.

that of Wāsiṭ or Ḥarrān," which was supposed to absorb Islam and reconcile all sects and castes. By about 210 Abdallāh ibn Maymūn al Qaddāḥ, a man from Mecca, was dying in prison in Kūfa after founding the astonishing secret society that was supposed to realize this ideal program: the Qarmathians or Ismailis. 144

For two centuries, under severe Ismaili discipline, Hellenistic "Sabianism," in the threefold form into which it was organized by Qarmathian propaganda, diffused the following throughout Islam: an expanded spirit of scientific research; 145 syncretism that reconciled all religious confessions by using a methodically graduated theosophical catechism; 146 and initiatory communism that propagated a ritual of companionship and an understanding among trade organizations, and led to the institution of the political Ismaili imamate, or Fatimism. Ismailism's egalitarian religious tolerance is well defined by the encyclopedia of the Ikhwan al-safa,147 by the apostolate of Nasir-i-Khusraw (d. 481), 148 by the politics of Hasan ibn al-Sabbah (d. 518), founder of the sect of the Assassins, whose "new propaganda" could still argue for "Sabian" universality of khaliliyya.149 The wars of the Crusaders clipped the wings of Fatimism; 150 the same stroke saved Sunni orthodoxy, which was being threatened. On the other hand, the great scientific teaching favored by the Fatimids passed to Europe and infused initiatory eastern elements¹³¹ into the corporative movement in our early universities.

How much did eastern syncretism, at least in the transitional forms¹⁵² of Hellenistic Sabianism and Qarmathian Ismailism, affect the Muslim mystics?

- 143 There is research to be done as to whether the society was somehow connected to the alleged "Bardaiṣanians" mentioned by Ibn al-Nadim (Fihrist, 339), because Ibn Maymūm was sometimes called "Ibn Dayṣān."
 - 144. See my Bibliographie garmate [Opera Minora, 1:627-39].
- 145. Highly developed zoology; medicine (opposed to tibb al-Nabī and to tibb rūliānī); logic (opposed to grammar); astronomical calendars (opposed to tachīr) and Indian jafr (as opposed to Arab anwā³).
- 146. Graduated pedagogy (as opposed to Qur²anic school); politics and Hellenized constitutional law (as opposed to figh).
- 147. Casanova dates the modified version c. 450; we know that the basic material is older because Tawhidi (d. 414) already knew and appreciated it (Bahbahāni, ms. London add, 24,411, f. 182b).
 - 148. Zād al-musāfirin.
 - 149. Extract of his Fusiil arbaca, ap. Shahrastani.
- 150. It was not the Sunni caliph of Baghdad but rather the Fatimid anticaliph (who had destroyed the Holy Sepulchre in 1009), who was stricken by the taking of Jerusalem.
- 151. Contemporaries knew of this: Joachim of Flora, in Messina in 1195, learned from a man returning from Alexandria "that the Patarenes (Cathats) had sent agents among the Saracens to come to an understanding with them" (Expositio in Apocalypsin, cap. 1X, ed. Venice, 1527, p. 134).
- 152. The translations themselves had very little immediate effect: three centuries would pass before a Plotinian text like the *Theology of Anistotle* (translated into Arabic in the third century A.H.) affected any Muslim mystics. Then it had influence thanks to two linked series of intermediaries: hybrid philosophers like Fārābī, Miskawayh, and Ibn Sinā; and syncretist encyclopedists

In the third century A.H., at the time of their first encounter, early Islamic mysticism and Hellenistic philosophical sycretism possessed independent lexicons and opposed doctrines.

Lexicons. Mystics use the terms of classical kalām in their ordinary senses, not in the specialized manner proposed by the philosophers: e.g., kawn, instantaneous existentialization (not genesis, natural growth, opp. fasād); and tabica, habit imposed upon a creature, as a visible seal or distinguishing mark (not one of the body's four internal humors). The mystics also follow the rules of Arabic grammar in choosing their terms, unlike the translators of philosophy, who divert usage artificially. Ta'alluh, for example, meaning "mystical union" to the Muctazilite Mascūdī¹⁵³ and the Hallajian Wāsitī, 154 is taken by the hellenistically inclined CAlī ibn Rabban to mean "devout fervor"; 155 wahdāniyya (which means, in dogma as in mysticism, "the pure divine essence"), 136 is chosen as the translation of the Greek ενωσις (henosis, "unification"),137 which the mystics had rendered as ittihād.158 Sunni mutakallimūn and rūhāniyya employ meanings opposite to those given by the physicians under Hellenistic influence for the following paired terms: $n\bar{i}h - nafs$, $t\bar{u}l - c$ ard, $s\bar{u}ra - ma^cn\bar{a}$ (Hellen.: $hay\bar{u}l\bar{a} - s\bar{u}ra$), wali - nabi, haqq - haqiqa, 159 athar - khabar. 160

Doctrine. The mystical proposition of nuqla (cf. sūq al-ṣuwar is in contrast to Hellenistic metempsychosis (tanāsukh). 161 The mystical thesis of divine, liberating friendship (khulla) cannot be identified with the idea of the soul's anarchic emancipation (khalīliyya=ibāḥa). In the fourth century A.H., some Qarmathian infiltrations were made: ultra-intellectualist psychology depersonalized the soul, reducing $n\bar{u}h$ to $^{c}aql^{162}$ in Tirmidhī and Tawhīdī; overly rationalist theology exhausted and attenuated divine transcendence, 163 limited the science of knowing God (Ghazāli's laysa fī'l-imkān), and compartmentalized God's power (Neoplatonic ithbāt al-maqādīr in Suhrawardī of

like the Ikhwān al-ṣafā: Both schools flowed together in Ibn 'Arabī. Ḥātimi's minor work on Aristotelian sayıngs quoted by Mutanabbī is a mere witty game.

^{153.} Tanbih, 387.

^{154.} Baqli, 1, 515: satā²ir muta²alliha; and the pseudo-Muḥāsibī, ap. Ri^cāya fi talṣil, ms. Cairo II, 87, at the beginning: "muta²allih".

^{155.} Firdaws, preface; cf. Tawhidi, this work, ch. 4, sec. 3.A.

^{156.} Passion, s.v.; also this work, v.i. (Mişrî, Tustarī, Junayd).

^{157.} Liber de Causis, 67, 75.

^{158.} Hallaj, ap. Bagli on Qur. 37:7.

^{159.} Passion, Fr. 3:307 n 1/Eng 3:289 n 65.

^{160.} Or khabar-nazar (ibid., Fr 3:310, 341-42/Eng 3:292, 323-24).

^{161.} Ibid., Fr 3:27/Eng 3:19 (Ibn Junayd, Shadd al-izār, 10-12).

^{162.} Passion, Fr 3:24/Eng 3:15.

^{163.} Ibid., Fr 3:83 n 5/Eng 3:73 n 137.

Aleppo). Finally, the Covenant¹⁶⁴ and the Nocturnal Ascent,¹⁶⁵ two essential points mentioned but unexplained in the Qur²ān, became the means by which Qarmathian exegesis penetrated the Islamic mystical milieux. As early as the third century, Tustarī perilously¹⁶⁶ likened the Covenant (mī-thāq) to the Qarmathian doctrine of the preexistence of souls, which were said to emanate and then be reabsorbed as divine, luminous particles. Though Ḥallāj did not adopt this idea,¹⁶⁷ Wāsiṭī used it in his teaching.¹⁶⁸ When the Ḥallājian thesis of divine transforming union was condemned by law, the mystics returned to Qarmathian exegesis: from the Qur²ānic Ascension's qāb qawsayn¹⁶⁹ they extracted the idea that mystical union was complete even without the transfiguration of the soul's substance, that union went no further than the moment of perfect intellectual vision¹⁷⁰ when the cluster of discourse that defines the divinity for us is dissolved in the void, at the precise moment the senses' ecstasy begins.

After three centuries of sustained struggle by Kharrāz, ¹⁷¹ Ḥallāj, ¹⁷² Taw-hīdī, ¹⁷³ Ghazālī, ¹⁷⁴ and Suhrawardī of Aleppo ¹⁷⁵—and at the very moment the Faṭimids' and Ismailis' political power was crumbling—Ibn ^cArabī made decisive, ¹⁷⁶ irremediable concessions, which surrendered Islamic mystical theology to the Qarmathians' syncretist monism. He depicts all of creation, no longer souls alone, as emanating from God through a five-stage cosmogonic evolution, the correlative of a rational, symmetrical clarification of the science of God. As for mystical union, we are supposed to become God again by an inverse movement, an ideal five-stage involution that sums up all of creation in our thought. ¹⁷⁷ After Ibn ^cArabī, and thanks to him, the Hellenistic syncretist vocabulary would dominate. ¹⁷⁸ The concern

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164. Ibid., Fr 3:116/Eng 3:105.
165. Ibid., ch. 14.
166. Ibid., Fr 3:301/Eng 3:283-84.
167. Ibid., Fr 3:113/Eng 3:101-2.
168. Ibid., Fr 3:157-58, 375-76/Eng 3:145, 357.
169. Ibid., ch. 14.
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170. Taliṣīl, a word rejected by Ḥallāj (Kalābādhī, no. 17 [in Essai, 1st and 2nd eds., appendix]) and allowed by Qurashi.

- 171. Against Tirmidhl.
- 172. Against Salimiyyan concessions.
- 173. True precursor of Ghazall.
- 174. Passion, ch. 14.

^{175.} Who is the last nonmonist (taŋīlı, munājāt), in spite of the encyclopedic tendencies that his adversaries exploited before Saladin, the conqueror of the Faṭimids, to have him executed as a Qarmathian. After Suhrawardī, the vocabulary, for example, of Ibn al-Fārid, the poet, or of Ibn Ḥammūya, the chief of an order, is unconsciously infected with monism.

^{176.} Prepared by Semi-Qarmathian works, themselves suspect, of the Spanish school: Ibn Barrajān; Ibn Qasyi, (author of the Khal^c al-na^clayn, which is preserved, with a commentary by Ibn Arabī, in Ms. Shāhid Alī, 1174); Ibn al-^citrīf; and Musaffar Sibtī.

^{177.} Passion, Fr 2:414 n 3/Eng 2:395 n 101.

^{178. &}quot;The misdeeds of Hellenic culture," denounced by Suhrawardi of Baghdād in a contemporary work.

to be in theoretical agreement with it would win out over introspection during ritual practice and analysis based on experiment. Although hindered by the fervor of believers like clzz Maqdisi, Yāfici, Ibn Sīmaūna, Zarrūq, Niyāzī and Nābulusī, the theory forcibly made experimentation conform.

Ibn Taymiyya, Ibn al-Qayyim, and Dhahabī, in the eighth/fourteenth century, justly stigmatized the Qarmathianism of Ibn Arabī and his disciples; the only error of these commentators was their simultaneous reproof of early mystics as resolutely anti-Qarmathian as Ḥallāj and Ghazālī. (Note that the latter was indeed haunted by an esoteric tendency.)

The responsibility for the divorce between ascetic discipline (ritual and moral) and mystical theology lies with Ibn 'Arabī's school, which elaborated a subtle theoretical vocabulary aimed at unverifiable cosmogonies and "ideogenies," and gnostic hierarchies that are beyond experiment (Farghānī, Jīlī, Kawranī). 179

The school consummated the schism between the Muslim mystics' callings and their effect on society. The Qarmathian discipline of the secret was substituted for the duty of brotherly correction; mysticism became an esoteric science not to be divulged, ¹⁸⁰ the preserve of closed circles of initiates and intellectual fossil groups, ¹⁸¹ Gobineau-Verein or Stendhal Clubs of ecstasy, opium dens of the supernatural.

E. Hinduism and Islamic Mysticism

This last problem is not the least delicate. Unlike the experimental scientific and philosophical information collected from Greece and Iran, India's contributions had not been incorporated into Near-Eastern syncretism by the eighth century A.D., the time of Islam's sudden expansion. The case of Hinduism¹⁸² is therefore exceptional: it had the opportunity to exercise an independent influence upon Islam, through a direct channel to its mysticism.

William Jones 183 suggested this possibility, but he did not seriously dem-

^{179.} Ard sainsam; arithmomancy.

^{180.} Lines of SIdi Majdhüb, v.s. herein p. 11.

^{181.} Nevertheless, among the Sanūsis, there are social, or rather political, ramifications.

^{182.} And not of a Buddhism, which I believe must be excluded. In the eighth century, Buddhism in India (Hsuan-Tsang) was in an advanced state of decay. The arguments set forth are easily dismissed: of the translation of the Kitāb al-bud of LāḥiqI we have only the title; the hypothesis of the nauvihāra of Balkh has now been abandoned; the resemblance of the Sufi's kashkāl to the Buddhist beggar's bowl may be fortuitous; the legend of Ibn Adham, the "beggar prince" of Balkh, is an adaptation of the Manichaean version of the story of the Buddha (Barlaam and Joasaph), not a direct imitation; finally, a passage from Jāḥiz cited below (ch. 4, sec. 6) and used by Rosen, Nicholson, and Goldziher [Voitesungen, Eng. trans. 142] to advance the theory of Buddhist influence, is in fact directed at Manichaean ascetics.

^{183.} Asiatic Researches, 1803, III, 353 ff., 376.

onstrate an influence with his comparison of later monist Sufism and the Vedānta school, or of Jalāl Rūmī's and Ḥāfiẓ's poetry and the Gīta Govinda; Tholuck, then Kremer, ¹⁸⁴ Rosen, and recently Goldziher, have shown that they accept the hypothesis to various degress. ¹⁸⁵

What ideas can we be certain were exchanged between Hinduism and Islam? What were the social hybridizations of these ideas in practice? Of what does pure Hindu mysticism, especially Patañjali's, consist? Finally, what must we think of Bîrûnī, who connects several specific texts, mostly of Patañjali, to sayings of the Muslim mystics Bisṭāmī, Ḥallāj, and Shibli?

Scientific information was directly exchanged between India and Islam during a very short period (100–180 A.H.). Knowledge was transferred through Başra while Sind belonged to the caliphs and before the Hellenistic syncretist corpus was translated into Arabic.

Exchanges observed in mathematics: "Indian" numbers (devanāgarī); 186 some astronomical tables translated by Fazārī in 154/771; 187 astrological information (Indian jafr, instead of the anwā²; namūdhār); calculation of sines (instead of chords) in trigonometry. Borrowing of information in medicine (observations of Charaka¹⁸⁸ and Mashqār)¹⁸⁹ and erotology, 190 perhaps after encapsulation in Pahlavī translations in the manner in which borrowing is proved to have taken place in romances (Pañchatantra, Jātakas) and in moral and philosophical writings. 191

And that is all. Bīrūnī, commenting on the sketchy information available to his predecessors Zurqān Misma^cī¹⁹² and Iranshahrī,¹⁹³ emphasizes that the Muslims' knowledge of India, even after three centuries of contact, is superficial. A reading of the *Fihrist* leads one to agree. Indian astonishes: Muslims, though interested by its bizarre customs¹⁹⁴ and natural wonders,¹⁹⁵ do not seek to understand it. The philosophical school of skep-

^{184.} Following Dozy and anticipating Salmon, he adopts the false date attributed by Langlès to Abū Sa⁵1d ibn abī'l-Khayr's apostolate in Khurāsān: 200/815 instead of 400/1009.

^{185.} The thesis of the Hindu origin of Islamic mysticism was pushed to extremes by Max Horten, in *Indische Strömungen*, (Wallesers Mater. zur Buddhismus, Heidelberg, XII, 1927). For the period after the conquest, Tarachand, Yusuf Husain, Khaliq Ahmad Nizami, and Masud Husain have made studies of reciprocal influences. Cf. above, in ch. 2, sec. 5. E. A Hallājian resurgence in eastern Bengal was remarked upon in my Gandhian Outlook and Techniques, New Delhi, 1953, 78.

^{186.} Bīrūnī, Hind, trans. 1, 174.

^{187.} Ibid., p xxxi; 11, 15. Before Ptolemy was translated.

^{188.} Filirist, 303. Alt ibn Rabban had made a translation (Birūni, loc. cit. p. xxxi-xxxii).

^{189.} Quoted by Jibra Il Bukhryisha C.

^{190.} XXIX figurae veneris, in Yamani, Rushd, ch. 7. Cf. the asannas.

^{191.} Cf. Filirist, 245. And Abū Sharm, ap. Jahiz, Bayan, I, 51.

^{192.} Samcani, s.v.

^{193.} Add Kindi to the list.

^{194.} Biruni, Hind, trans., 1, 179-82.

^{195.} Ajā²ib al-Hind by Ibn Shahriyār. Indian vocabulary introduced into Arabic by sailors: shatra, parasol; kūt; fūta; etc.

tics drawn to Hinduism, the Sumaniyya (introduced into Basra by Jarīr b. Hāzim Azdī, 196 120—140 A.H.), was an aberration that disappeared quickly after offending the conscience of theologians such as Jahm. 197

Horten's conjectures¹⁹⁸ on the Indian origin of the skepticism of some of the *mutakallimūn* are useless.¹⁹⁹ Kremer's and Margoliouth's, on the poet Ma^carri's supposed conversion to Hinduism,²⁰⁰ remain unverified.

Direct contact stopped in the third century. Hinduism, with its complex idolatry and causal chains intertwined ad infinitum (kamna, samsāra), found itself losing metaphysical ground to Islamic occasionalism's forceful witness to a living, threatening, transcendent, and personal God. In science, by 180-200 A.H., Arab translators of Hellenistic syncretism 201 possessed a doctrine that was clearer, fuller, and more homogeneous than the one maintained in the Indian schools. The syncretist doctrine was also closer to Islam: it taught the search for causes (but not actual infinity) and the one divinity (not explicitly transcendent), supreme giver of order and prime mover; it had an astronomic calendar (which was homogeneous, unlike the multiple astronomic days of the Hindus); it used less time-consuming methods of calculation and more condensed lists of predicaments and causes of error; its egalitarian political theory unified social morals and behavior (without the compartmentalization of the caste system) and finally justified requiring the whole community to observe the fast and pilgrimage, where Hinduism would have considered those acts to be supererogatory (nafal), strictly optional and individual.

The first serious cases of fertile hybridization between Hinduism and Islam appeared in India as a result of Muslim missionary activity. There were two types of these cases, mystical and Qarmathian:

Sunni Mystics: in Cranganore and Maldives, conversion of the Moplahs (Mapillas) by the disciples of Mālik ibn Dīnar (d. 127); in Gujarat, conversion of the Dudwalas and Pinjaras by Ḥallāj (d. 309); in Trichinopoly, of the Labbais by Nathar Shāh (d. 431/1039); in Porto Novo, of the Marecars; in Cutch, of the Momans, by Yūsuf al-Dīn Sindī (seventh/thirteenth century). Then came the missionary work of the orders (on which see below).

^{196.} Aghānī, III, 24; Kremer, C.S., 34.

^{197.} In Ibn Ḥanbal, Radd ^calā'l-zanādiqa, the beginning. Cf. Nazzām and Mu^cammar (Murtaḍā, Munya, 31-32).

^{198.} Philosoph. Systeme, 1912, 177, 274, 608.

^{199.} The skepticism of early Islamic kalām comes from an occasionalism of Qur³ānic origin (Passion, Fr 3:75, 96/Eng 3:65, 85; cf. "Méthodes de réalisation artistique ... de l'Islam," in Syria, 1921). Hindu skepticism on the other hand has a mystical foundation: it denies substances at first, then accidents, then sensations, only in order to liberate the consciousness from the labor of conceptual elaboration.

^{200.} He refused to kill a flea (Luzümiyyät, I, 212; cf. Margoliouth, Letters, 1898).

^{201.} The few Hindu elements to be found encapsulated there had passed through the Pahlavi language and had been cleansed by Manichaean teachings (Kalila and Dimna, Sindbad).

Qarmathians: in the time of Harūn al-Rashīd, Ismailis began to take refuge in the Sind: 202 conversion of the area around Moltan (c. 200), where there are still some Dāūdpōtras of Khairpur (cf. Bahāwalpūr and Baluchistan); conversion of the Bōhoras of Gujarat by Abdallāh Harrāzī (460/1067); of the Wakhan and Afrīdī tribes by Nāṣir-i-Khusraw (473/1080); of the Khojas of Gujarat by two neo-Ismaili apostles, Nūr Satagar (d. 535/1140) and Ṣadruddīn (d. 834/1430).

Propagandists of these two types gave rise to several phenomena of social hybridization. ²⁰³ Some low castes ²⁰⁴ that had been converted to Islam combined the strict canon with Hindu customs; some vain practices slipped into Sunni mysticism (Mehdevis, ²⁰⁵ Rawshaniyya, Nürbakhshiyya).

The Qarmathian syncretist catechism had already been adapted by its Muslim founders to the other forms of monotheism, to Harrānian paganism, and even to Mazdeism. It was effortlessly annexed to the Hindu theogony. Among the Khoja caste, ^cAli became the tenth avatar of Vishnu, in anticipation of the strange syncretist encyclopedias later concocted in Persian (e.g., the Dabistān of Mobed Shāh²⁰⁶ and the Mazdean Desātīr).²⁰⁷

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Sanskrit classics appeared in various translations in the language of the Muslim conquerors, Persian, 208 with encouragement from Fayzī, the brother of Akbar's minister, Abu'l-Faḍl (Baghavad Gīta, Rāmāyana), then from Prince Dārā. 209 On the other hand, versions of various qiṣaṣ, Muslim hagiographical tales, were made immediately in the popular Indian dialects. The tale of Ibn Adham was translated into Kashmiri, that of Ḥallāj into Urdu. 210

Hindu responses to certain kinds of Muslim men of letters are insignifi-

- 202, Dastür al-munajjimîn.
- 203. Arnold has forcefully proved that it was not the conquerors' brute force that assured Islam's progress in India; Kifūr's persecutions in the Mahrat country (1305-6 A.D.), Aurangzeb's in Rajpoutana, and Tippo Saheb's in Mysoor accomplished nothing. If Sikandar's (d. 1417) in Kashmir and Jattmali's (1414) in Gaur had more success, it is because they coincided with the conversions of princes.
 - 204. Momans, Böhoras, Khojas, Moplahs.
- 205. Passion, 1st ed., 86 n 1 [and for revisions of earlier thinking on the Mansuris, cf. 2nd ed. Fr 2:288/Eng 2:275].
 - 206. In the seventeenth century; 1st ed., Calcutta, 1224/1809 [bib., s.n., Fani].
 - 207. Published in Bombay in 1818 [bib., s.n., Firuz Bin Kaus].
- 208. Before that, there were only two translators of Indian mystic authors into Arabic: Birūnī, of whom more will be said below, and Rukn Āmidī (d. 615/1218) whose Mir³āt al-ma²ānī, translated from the Amṛtakunda of a Yogi, was later imitated by Ibn Arabī (Brockelmann, G.A.L. I, 440, 443).
- 209. The Muslim-Hindu "conversations" of prince Dara Shukuh with the Kabirpanthi Baba Laci Das (whose tomb I saw in old Qandahar in 1945) have been published and translated (by myself, with Huart) in JAP, 1926. Cf. my Recueil, 1929, pp. 160-64 for his Persian translation of the Upanishads. We know that in reaction to Hindu pantheism, Islamic mysticism in India repudiated the wahdat al-wujind (existential monism) in favor of wahdat al-shuhind (testimonial monism: Simnani, 'Ali Hamadhani, Serhindi, Iqbal).
 - 210. Cf. cat. Luzac, XIII, no. 310.

cant compared to the popular conversions achieved by the Islamic mystics. It was they who increasingly led the Hindu masses to Islam. Colonies of Muslim holy men, after fleeing Persia during the Mongol invasions, grew and multiplied in Northern India; from the seventh/thirteenth century onward, the hermits' example of austerity and ministering gentleness converted Hindus, who founded villages around their masters' sacred tombs: 211

Mu^cin Chishtī (d. 634) in Ajmer; Quṭb Kākī in Delhi; Jalāl Tabrīzī (d. 642) in Bengal; Farīd Shakarganj (d. 664), the ancestor of the Kīlānī "sayyids," in Pākpattan; Jalāl Surkhpōsh (d. 690), ancestor of the Bukhārī "sayyids," in Ucch (Bahāwalpūr); Muḥammad Gīsūdarāz in Belgaum; Abū 'Alī Qalandarī in Panīpat (d. 725); Shāh Jalāl Yamanī at Sylhet in Assam (d. 786); 'Alī Hamadhānī in Kashmir (d. 791); and 'Abdallāh Shaṭṭārī (d. 818).

In India, Islam was spread not by war but by mysticism and the great orders of mystics: Chishtiyya, Kubrāwiyya, Shaṭṭāriyya, and Naqshabandiyya. To follow the "Centuriators" of Magdeburg and describe local devotion to India's Muslim holy men as "survivals of idolatry" and "pagan infiltrations," is to forget that victors can only obtain a social reconciliation with the vanquished by giving while asking for nothing in return, and by lending without hope of gain. It is also to forget the two liberating ideas that the converts were bound by their consciences to hold: a sovereign and transcendent God, and an individual immortal soul. With two others, perhaps: the notions of supernatural grace (prasāda) and of devotion to a personal God (bhakti). 115

Islamic mystical influence beneficially pushed toward the reconciliation of castes, in humble vocations like Baba Kapur's (d. 979/1571) in Gwalior, and brilliant apostolates like Kabīr's (d. 924/1518). Though a student of the Hindu Ramananda, Kabīr taught hymns to his disciples, the Kabīrpanthīs, in which they could celebrate the one God—the personal God Who answers prayers, has characteristics, and is accessible through transcendent revelation, rather than the supreme, indifferent, quasi-virtual divinity perceived by the schools of polytheistic syncretism. The hymns of the Sufi Farid Shakarganj were incorporated into the Adi Granth of the Sikh sect (Nānak, d. 946/1539), which tried to reintegrate the Kabīrpanthī apostolate into Hinduism. No doubt the modern polemic of the Arya Samāj, 216 fighting for

^{211.} In the fifteenth century, there were Hindu pilgrims to the tomb of the marryr prince Salar Mascud, called "Ghāzī Miyān," defeated and killed 14 Rajab 424/1033 in the battle of Bahraich (Oude) by idolaters.

^{212.} Pirzadas, Husayn Brahmanis, Satya Dharma.

^{213.} Tomb of Hasan Abdal in Attok.

^{214.} More so than in the very limited apostolate of the Syro-Chaldean Christians of Meliapor.

^{215.} See the polemic of Grierson and Kennedy on this subject, in JRASB, 1907-8. Tara Chand has recently begun to study the problem.

^{216.} Arnold, Preaching of Islam, 2nd ed., 439.

souls against Islam in the center of India, especially at Bundelkhund, demonstrates that the old Indian paganism is not dead. But the social reform of the satyagraha²¹⁷ ("civil vindication of the truth through self-sacrifice"), now preached by a pure Hindu ascetic, Mohanlal Karamchand Gandhi, shows how close some kinds of Hinduism have come to a Muslim religious and mystical ideal: ²¹⁸ social action is directed not towards freeing ourselves as individuals but towards our communal salvation; actions are founded on the dogma of the personal soul's immortality, and the soul is devoted to a sort of spiritual "holy war" through the fast and the practice of the sacrificial virtues accessible to illiterates.²¹⁹

It might be asked whether Indian mysticism as presented by Patañjali's commentators did not help Kabīr move toward the disciplined, transcendent monotheism of Islam. I hope an Indianist will compile documents on the subject; in conclusion I will simply present a brief account of the characteristics of postvedic Hindu mysticism:

Already in the Upanishads, the problem mysticism raises is not of positive unification of the soul through purifying the heart, but simply of preliminary meditation, the negative eradication of all mental images or intellectual movements ad extra. This mysticism is original²²⁰ insofar as it repudiates all foreign elements, metaphysical or ritual. Consideration of the substance or the attribute, the objectivity of sense-data or the permanence of personality, God's grace or transcendence, is deliberately refused. The mystical experience, strictly confined to the psychological consciousness, makes a direct attack on the "bond," the human mind's conditioning to the flesh, by which freedom of thought is paralyzed. The mystic wants to eliminate²²¹ the imposed relation that couples thought to a given object of perception; he attempts to do without the external, partial realities that the mind constantly needs in order to maintain an ordinary, intermittent awareness of itself.

In this mystical system, the question of mind-matter dualism, though not stated in metaphysical terms, is understood. The mind is implicitly affirmed to be superior a priori to matter, as is (angelic) intuition to (human) understanding. The mystic seeks to free his consciousness from the servitude of the five senses and the yoke of discursive effort.

^{217.} See RMM, XLIV, pp. 55-63.

^{218.} As Dr. Abdul Majid has shown, in the Modern Review, Calcutta, Nov. 1920.

^{219.} Cf. Hasan Basri, Muhasibi, and Hallaj for an analogous doctrine (Passion, Fr 3:228 ff., 228 ft., 228 ft.,

^{220.} Its first lucid presentation to Muslims is by Abūl-Faḍl, in his Ayin-i-akbarī, trans., III, 127 ff. 221. In Christian terms, the conceptualization of the logos in the mind must be freed from the preliminary process of informing an image. The mystic aims to unsheathe the conscious subject from the perceived object, which is supposed to disappear.

Does psychological consciousness have length, or continuity, or permanence? The question was soon set aside. The soul's permanent individuality (ātman), as well as the substantiality of the soul and heart (manas),²²² became blurred in the Nyāya school and were rejected by the Mīmāṃsā and Vedānta schools.²²³ Finally, the Sāṃkhya school, for greater simplicity, after denying the ātman and analytically enumerating twenty-four graduated forms of material nature (the prakṛti), thought it sufficient to add one last form, the punisha: simple, instantaneous, and impersonal consciousness of the truth, divisible into pieces through multilocation.

The Nyāya school provided a sketch of Indian mysticism's goal. A decisive critique of the discursive intellect's imperfect functioning led to the search for apavarga, the "final emancipation" from the sadness caused by intellectual error. The goal became precise with the Sāṃkhya school. It is sattvāpatti, "actualization of psychological consciousness," the purely intuitive "truth without content" described by Bīrūnī.²²⁴ The purusha must attain this state by control over the conceptual process.

Patañjali, adept in the principles of the Sāṃkhya school,²²⁵ gave Hindu mysticism its classical form in his Yoga-Sūtra,²²⁶ in which he sets samādhi asaṃprajñāta (see below) as the goal of the mystical search.

Patañjali presents four sets of preliminary training exercises, which must be combined. The senses are mastered through abstinence (yama); intentions are bound by ritual vows (niyama) dedicated to one of the gods (uvara); the limbs are made supple by being placed in various rigid postures in turn (84 āsana); the breathing reflex is regulated by the will. This ascetic training eliminates phenomena extraneous to the perceived goal and facilitates the pursuit of it. Learning to regulate the breath teaches the adept, after he has used abstraction (pratyāhāra) to make his thought a sheath for the five senses, to concentrate his mind at will.

The mystical experimentation properly called "synergy" ²²⁷ begins here, with constraint of the consciousness, or samyama ("synderesis"): (1) The first stage is contemplation (dhāraṇā), in which thought consists of only three things — a conscious subject (punisha), a state of consciousness (sattva), and an object (of some sort) of which the subject is conscious (bud-

^{222.} Considered two of the nine substances (dravya).

^{223.} According to Buddhism, the soul is merely an artificial aggregate of five attributes (skand-has) without a substance to support them. Symmetrical concept of envelopes of personality in Tustari (Passion, Fr 3:24-25/Eng 3:17-18; but here God occasionalistically creates their unity).

^{224.} It is not enough,

^{225.} Borrowing from the Vedāntists, he adds the notion of the "three gunas" of praktii (sattva, tamas, rajas) and the idea of īśvaras (perfect ideal beings, divine models to be venerated, virtual figures, children of Brahmā and Māyā).

^{226.} I quote the English translation of M. N. Dvivedi, Tattva Vivechaka Press, Bombay, 1899, iii + 99 + vii pages, where Ramananda Saraswati's commentary is used.

^{227.} Conscientia in the etymological sense.

dhi).²²⁸ (2) The next state is absorption (dhyāna), in which thought becomes only two things—a conscious subject and an object of which one is conscious.²²⁹ (3) The final stage is psychological ecstasy (samādhi), in which thought becomes the object of which one is conscious, by a gradual transformation.²³⁰

The final transformation takes place (for vitti) in three stages, corresponding (for purusha) to three new aspects of the conscious subject:

- a) nirodhapariṇāma (for vṛtti): When thought has become identified with the object of thought, consciousness is placed in a state of suspension with regard to that object. It is torn away and realizes that the object (which thought has just become) is in itself not absolute, permanent, or necessary. This perilous leap from the mental trampoline, this rapture into the void, corresponds in the purusha to dharmaparināma, "the subject's transformation in the property (= haecceity)* of the object."
- b) samādhi saṃprajāāta (for vṛtti): "conscious psychological ecstasy." The consciousness becomes rooted in indifference towards the object with which its thought has become identified. At an increasing frequency, the consciousness makes thought alternate between moments of suspension outside the object and moments of identification with it. Through this process, the consciousness learns to be insensitive to suspension and resumption of attention to an object; the change corresponds in the purusha to lakshanapariṇāma, "the subject's transformation in character** (= ipseity)."
- c) samādhi asamprajnāta (for vṛtti): "unconscious psychological ecstasy." The consciousness achieves supreme simplicity, in which states of suspension and resumption of thought pass over it without a trace. This simplicity corresponds in the purusha to avasthāparināma, "the subject's transformation in condition (= the Real)" = kaivalya. In this state of "solitude," the three qualities (guṇas) of nature (prakṛti) are reduced to one, the sattva, a state of consciousness that is as pure as the conscious subject (purusha) is purified.²³¹

With a view to comparison, I shall now try to transpose Patañjali's vocabulary into the technical language of Islamic mysticism:

^{*&}quot;Haccceity" serves principally to make clear that Massignon means propriété, "property," in a sense that happens to be obsolete in common usage, in both French and English.

^{**}Or characteristic. For "haecceity" and "ipseity," see Passion, Fr 3:85/Eng 3:75 and index of technical terms (anniya, linuitya); Lalande's Vocabulaire technique de la philosophie (entries for excité, ipsésté); Massignon's Muhādarāt. "Haecceity" and "ipseity" have sometimes been synonyms, but in Massignon's usage, haecceity is simply what distinguishes the individual from all others, the outer contour of its ipseity, or inner selfhood.

^{228.} Yoga, III, sec. 1.

^{229.} Ibid., III, sec. 2.

^{230.} Ibid., III, sec. 3-13. The term vitti is explained herein, in ch. 2, sec. 2. B., and ch. 2, sec. 2. E.

^{231.} Yoga, III, sec. 55.

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    ātman = nafs; both "soul" and "self."
    manas = qalb; both "heart" and Intellect."
    purusha = rūh; in the double sense of "mind" and "spirit" in Islam.
    vṛtti = istinbāt, cirfān; elucidation, discursive assimilation of the object of thought.
    sattva = naẓar, ru²ya; "state of consciousness."
    buddhi²³² = manzūr; "the object of which one becomes conscious."
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The admirable internal malleability of Semitic radicals will permit a schematization of the long preceding description of samyama's three stages. In Arabic, one need only perform grammatical operations on the roots, which do not change in themselves:

- a) In the state of "contemplation" (dhāraṇā) there remains only nāzir, nazar, and manzūr (= dhākir, dhikr, madhkūr; or cārif, cirfān, and macrūf; or mushīr, ishāra, and mushār ilayhī; or muwaḥḥid, tawḥīd, and muwaḥhad).²³³
- b) In the state of "absorption" (dhyāna) there remains only nāzir and manzūr. This is the fanā can al-dhikr.
- c. In psychological ecstasy (samādhi): (1) the state of suspension is the bayn or tajrīd of Ḥallāj; ²³⁴ (2) the alternation of suspension and resumption of thought is Sayyārī's jam^c wa tafriqa; ²³⁵ (3) unconscious ecstasy is Ḥallājian tafrīd (not tawhīd)²³⁶ and Sayyārī's jam^c al-jam^c (absolutely not to be confused with the transforming ^cayn al-jam^c).

Nicholson's use of fanā and ghayba as equivalents of Hindu words is to be rejected. As Ḥallāj observed,²³⁷ the Arabic terms are complex and extremely ambiguous. Moreover, in Islam, fanā means either "annihilation of thought in its Object" (fanā bi'l-Madhkūr, can al-dhikr: Tustarī, Junayd, Ḥallāj), or "annihilation of the Object in thought" (fanā bi'l-dhikr, can al-Madhkūr: Bisṭāmī, Sarrāj). Here, in Hinduism, it would mean strictly "thought's self-annihilation, through a cycle of suspension and resumption" (fanā bi [and can] al-jamc wa'l-tafriqa).²³⁸

The difference is this: in Islam God is the transcendent Real. Islamic mysticism cannot make that revelation abstract. At the threshold of liberation from the flesh, the Muslim mystic's conscience can no longer ignore

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232. Ibid., II, sec. 17 [IV, sec. 21].
233. Passion, Fr 3 102 ff., 87, 143/Eng 3:91 ff., 76, 131; Taw., VIII, 6.
234. Taw., VI, 7.
235. Hujwiri, Kashf, 252.
236. Taw., VI, 7-8.
237. Ap. Sulami on Qur 52:47.
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^{238.} One might argue that, the shahāda being precisely a choice for the mind, and therefore an alternation (suspension and resumption, nafy and ithbāt), the fanā bi'l-tawḥīd that Abū cAli Sindī taught to Bistāmī is quite close to the Hindu idea.

the absolutely real Object, the superabundant Truth reflected in his thought. The conscience must burn in that Truth, to be transfigured or destroyed. For Patañjali, the mystical method was stripped of metaphysics and ritual; it was limited to establishing a remarkably balanced and precise introspective formula for the liberation of a man's spiritual nature from the bonds of flesh, the mind's complete renunciation of all created things. The method concedes that, in exchange, certain practitioners of the preternatural (not to be examined here) may suddenly find that their thoughts have extraordinary powers over all of nature (second sight, miracles, which are of secondary importance). Patañjali insists that the purpose of mysticism is not to obtain miraculous powers but to maintain the consciousness in a state of absolute simplicity.

With unusual honesty, in the beginning of his preparatory exercises, ²³⁹ Patañjali permits something that his masters of the Sāṃkhya school reject: semiritual reliance on an *īśvara*, a legendary or historical god or hero, as an admired example. This recourse to the *īśvara* is allowed for stimulation and discipline of vows and devotional acts, but Patañjali states that it would be of no use in samādhi: the *īśvara* is an effigy of the imagination, and it would become a vain idol, in which the consciousness would admire itself alone.

The true position of Patañjali's mysticism is as follows: it has no conclusion; in the end it offers a glimpse of a negative state obtained by high-frequency cycles of thought that remove all images from the consciousness. This mysticism is the intuitive destruction of idols and idolatry, the complete ascetic experiment pushed to the threshold of ecstasy: mortification of the flesh, extinction of images, perfect denial of the will. Just as Greek rationalism, among the teachers of Socrates, led to an experiment ad extra with the possibility of monotheism, Hindu mysticism among Patañjali's disciples led to a demonstration ab intra that polytheism is inane.

The mysticism of the Yoga-Sūtra is devoid of shaṭḥ, the supreme feature of monotheistic mysticism in Islam. Shaṭḥ is a positive state of mental intermittency, accompanied by dialogue, in which the isolated soul receives the supernatural visitation of a transcendent Interlocutor. In spite of the declarations of the theosophists who translated Patañjali, thinking they could understand him as a syncretist ally, his school prepared many souls in these Indian regions, enslaved as they were to all idolatrous divinizations, including the cruelest and vilest, to desire 240 the dogmatic revelation of the personal God.

Patañjali's mysticism is an admirably practiced asceticism of the con-

^{239.} Yoga, 1, sec. 24, 37; II, sec. 45.

^{240.} Cf. Roberto de Nobili (d. 1656), who submitted to the ascetic rule of the Sannyasis in order to demonstrate, by an *ad hominem* argument comparable to Pascal's "wager," Christ's superiority as an *Isvara*, a simple, ideal model [cf. above, n 58].

sciousness. Neoplatonic mysticism seems more comprehensive but is more limited. To accomplish the transformation of substance through ecstasy by which it is claimed that unification with the One may be achieved, the Neoplatonists use only philosophical concepts.²⁴¹ These, being naturally inoperative, are overestimated and become idols, in order to make the transcendent operation succeed. Only ²⁴² mystics belonging to the three groups of Semitic monotheism, which are founded on the revelation to Abraham, admit that God alone transfigures consciousness during ecstasy by substituting His fiat for the soul's. This doctrine of mystical union, taught categorically in Christianity and fiercely contested among Jews,²⁴³ was distinctly set forth in Islam.²⁴⁴

The table of Arabic-Sanskrit transposition given above will make it possible to examine the only serious demonstration yet attempted, that mystical union in Islam is of Hindu origin. It is in the admirable work on India by Bīrūnī (d. 440/1048). Some of the furtive analogies²⁴⁵ he sketches in passing can be quickly set aside: between Sufi fanā and some verses of the Baghavad Gīta; ²⁴⁶ between the Sāmkhya school's critique of Paradise and the Sufi statement (Bisṭāmī's) that "the recompense of Paradise is not a good thing, because, with it, something other than God becomes a distraction, and concentration is fixed on something besides the absolute Good"; ²⁴⁷ between the Sufis' doctrine of miracles ²⁴⁸ and Patañjali's. This is the principal passage: ²⁴⁹

The Sufis use Patañjali's method²⁵⁰ in the matter of (unifying) concentration on God. They say, "As long as you are working out your expressions, you have not affirmed the one God; and you will not have affirmed Him until He has taken over your expressions by making you renounce them, so that neither the (created) enunciator nor its (human) expression survives." Some of their statements favor the doctrine of unification. For example, one mystic, when asked a

- 241. Besides certain adventitious forms of theurgy of dubious character.
- 242. The Chinese mysticism of Chuang-Tzu has just begun to be studied. Negro animist mysticism is rudimentary (RMM XLIV, 10, n 2).
 - 243. Ascetic inspiration.
 - 244. Passion, Fr 3:51/Eng 3:44.
 - 245. To the Christian doctrine of expiation (trans., II, 161); a quote from Basidiyo (text, p. 26).
 - 246. Trans., I, 76, 82, 87-88.

^{247.} Trans., I, 62. He himself remarks that "the premises were different." In the same way we might compare the sphota (Yoga, III, sec. 17) with the Muslim jafr, and the nirodha (Yoga, III, sec. 9, eighth article of the Way [mārga], suppressing pain at its cause, the end of kanna's samsāra, rest) with the bayn and bīkār of the Druze.

^{248.} Trans., I, 68.

^{249.} Text, 43.

^{250.} Except Abu'l-Fadl, who analysed the Yoga-Sutra briefly, the only Muslim after Biruni who seems to have studied it is Husayn ibn Muhammad, the Persian author of the Bahr al-hayāt, written in the eighteenth century (Luzac catalogue, XXIII, no. 867).

question about the Truth, answered, "How could I not notice Him who is my 'I' in haecceity and who is not my 'I' in localization? If I insist on this, my insistence separates me from him! If I do not insist, my negligence stuns me, and I become improperly familiar with unification (in God)." Abū Bakr Shiblī responded, "Cast everything away, and you will join Us completely! Not being, you will be! Because news of you will come from Us, and your act will be Our act." And Abū Yazīd Bisṭāmī, when asked, "How did you acquire these favors?" answered, "I removed my soul ('carnal soul,' naſs), as the serpent sheds its skin; then I considered my essence. And now you see, my 'I' is He!"

Certainly Bīrūnī had some right to discuss Patañjali. He had translated the entire Yoga-Sūtra from Sanskrit into Arabic under the title Kitāb Pātan-jal al-Hindī fī'l-khalāṣ min al-amthāl.²⁵¹ (Long passages are reproduced in his studies of India, which still exist in manuscript at Constantinople.)²⁵² His title for the book, which means Liberation from the Images, is quite a good translation of the Sanskrit Vritinirodhā.²⁵³ But what is the real worth of the four textual comparisons quoted above? The first text is by Ḥallāj; I have analyzed its theory of the shahāda,²⁵⁴ which surpasses Patañjali's samādhi in that it describes not only renunciation of the soul but also actual transformation in God. The second text, anonymous and probably late, is perhaps a commentary on Ḥallāj's Anā'l-Ḥaqq.²⁵⁵ The third, by Shiblī, is, like the second, an elliptical condensation of Ḥallāj's thesis. The last, by Biṣtāmī, in spite of its outrageous conciseness, is monist only in appearance.²⁵⁶ Nevertheless, Hindu analogies²⁵⁷ could be found in his method.

APPENDIX: TABLE OF THE "PHILOSOPHICAL" ALPHABET (JAFR)²⁵⁸

Sources: Nașibī, Jafrjāmi^c, London ms. Or. 2333; Baqlī, Shaṭḥiyāt, 22 ff., Ibn Sina Nayrūziya (cf. Mémorial Avicenne, IV, Cairo, 1952).*

*When clarifications or additions from this article are particularly helpful, I have inserted them, in brackets.

- 251. The critical edition of the Arabic translation by Birūni of Patanjali's Yoga-Sūtra (with Sanskrit facing page) was remarked upon by J. W. Hauer (and H. H. Schaeder) in OLZ, 1930, 273-82.
- 252. Köpr ms. 1589; recopied in the margin of sec. 52 (Sirat al-shaykh al-kabīr = Ibn Khafif) but not mentioned in the printed catalogue of the library, p. 116.
 - 253. Patanjali, Yoga-Siitra, II, sec. 27.
 - 254. Passion, Fr 3:143, 246/Eng 3:131, 232.
 - 255. Passion, Fr 3:55-56, 71/Eng 47, 62.
 - 256. Below, ch. 5. Critique of his "anā huwa," in Passion, Ḥallājian Text II, Fr 3:71/Eng 3:62.
- 257. Sindi, who taught him fand bi'l-tawlid (Qush I, 107-8), had arguably been in contact with Hindus. But his nisba refers to Sind near Abiward. (Yq. III, 167).
- 258. The letters are in the order of the abjad, the old Semitic and numerical order. (a) the two senses $(t\bar{u}l, {}^{c}ard)$, and typical words in Hallaj, Tirmidhi, etc....; Nasibi is indicated by N., Baqli by

- alif = 1. The basic element that is a part of every composition (ma³lūf). The one; theoretical unity, a parte ante (azal, fardāniyya). grammar (gr.): prefix of the first person. Hebrew (Hebr.): bull [i.e., the animal], teaching. Christian (Chr.): convenience, foundation. ²⁵⁹ Cf. fatha (manṣūb). Bārī (Ibn Sīnā).
- bā = 2. Introduction. Putting into relation (aṣl li'l-ta līl, N.). gr: li'l-ilṣāq. Hebr: house, visitation. Chr: house. 260 Agl (Ibn Sīnā).
- jīm = 3. That which complements. Beauty (jamāl, N). Hebr: camel. Chr: fullness of elevated things (gamma). Nafs (Ibn Sīnā).
- dāl = 4. The equilibration of created things (N). Their permanence (dawām). Hebr.: gate, tablets. Chr; genesis of created things (delta).²⁶¹ Tabī^ca (Ibn Sina; hayūlä for the Ismailis).
- dhāl = 700. What is fundamental in the thing or idea (dharra, dhāt, N).
- hā = 5. "ah"; the guide that straightens (hudā). The enunciation of the subject ("I") (huwiyya BS, caql, cadad tāmm, N). gr: silence, third person suffix. Hebr: window. Chr: he who is in the creation cepsilon). Al-Nāṭiq (Ismaili ms). Bārī bi'l-idāfa (Ibn Sīnā).
- wāw = 6. Oath. Unconditioned connection (wujūd muṭlaq, isrā, N). gr: li'l
 'atf [conjunction]. li'l-jam' fī'l-hukm dūn tartīb fī'l-zamān. 263 Hebr: ankle, sign. Chr: the Sign (digamma). Cf. damma (marfū'). Aql bi'l-idāfa
 (Ibn Sīnā).
- zā = 7. Realization. Growth, increase (zuhd, ziyāda, N). Hebr: javelin, life. Chr: life 264 (zeta). Nafs bi'l-idāfa (Ibn Sīnā).
- $h\bar{a} = 8$. Actual or enlivening inspiration ($h\bar{a}l$, wahy, ghayth shāmil, N). Hebr: the living. Chr: the living ($\bar{e}ta = 8$). 265
- *khā = 600. Good; immortality. (khayr dā³im, N), (khi = 600).
- $t\bar{a} = 9$. Primordial purity of God; sanctity, felicity of the contented; bounty

BS. (b) grammatical meaning. (c) Hebraic meaning. (d) Christian meaning and Greek equivalent. (c) and (d) according to Apa Saba (= St. Sabas?), Les mystères des lettres grecques (Coptic Arabic manuscript at Oxford, Huntington, 393), trans. Hebbelynck, Louvain, 1902, 127, 132. Cf. St. Pachomius, in Patrol. lat., XXIII, 87, 95, 98; and St. Jerome, Ep. 30 ad Paulam. (e) Ibn Sina is marked in fine, in italics.

This fundamental presentation was redone in fascicule 4 of the Institut français du Caire's Mémorial Aviceune: "La Philosophie orientale d'Ibn Sina et son alphabet philosophique," 1-18. Ibn Sina shows the origins, both Arab (symbolism of the twenty-eight mansions of the zodiac) and Islamic (the fourteen isolated first letters of certain Qur'anic suras), of this attempt to form a "symbolic logic" tabulating the process by which the events of the sublunar world come to occur, and he demonstrates the relation between that process and the Arabic grammarians' ishtiqāq akbar.

^{259.} Hallaj (Qur. 7:1, Taw., VI, 25).

^{260.} Ibn Ata, ap. Sarraj, Luma, 88.

^{261.} Ja far (ap. Baqli, on Qur. 112:1); Hallaj (Taw., I, 15).

^{262.} Tirmidhī (ap. Sulamī on Qur. 20:1). Cf. Taw., IX, 2,

^{263.} Qarāfi (ap. Qāsimī, Ugūl, 44).

^{264.} Hallaj (Taw., VI, 25).

^{265.} Hallaj (Taw., 1, 15); Qushayri (ap. Baqli on Qur. 45; cf. 44).

- $(tah\bar{a}ra, t\bar{u}b\bar{a})$. The letter was exchanged in Arabic with the Hebrew tet $(t\bar{a}) = beauty$. Good (Chr.) $(th\bar{e}ta = 9)$. $Hay\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ (Ibn Sinā).
- $*z\bar{a} = 900$. The via remotionis. Appearance of God (zuhūr, tanzīh N).
- yā = 10. Intellectual allegiance offered [conforming adherence]. God's help (yad al-qudra); divine speech (BS). gr: li'l-idāfa; possessive suffix, third person prefix. Hebr. the hand, the principle (yod). Chr. the Lord, Yahwe. 267 Cf. kasra (majrūr). al-Qāyim. Ibdā^c (Ibn Sīnā).
- kāf = 20. The appropriate statement or expression of an idea (kāfi). The idea of the fiat (Kun! N). gr: comparison. Hebr: meanwhile. Chr: Ecclesiastes. 268 Takwīn (Ibn Sīnā) [the structure imprinted on all that is created].
- lām = 30. An idea's becoming explicit, in its comprehension (tadammun).
 The gift of grace (mujādala, ālā, abad), divine transfiguration (N), divine disguise (BS). gr: ḥarf al-tajallī. Hebr: instruction (lamed). Chr: the immortal.
 269 Amr (Ibn Sīnā) [the divine commandment].
- mīm = 40. The determination of an idea, in its extension (muṭābaqa); its divine status, its name (ism, maṭām, mulk, maṭall); emergence of the action of the spirit (BS). gr: sign of the past participle. Hebr: water, soul. Chr: about Him and by Him. 270 Khalq (Ibn Sīnā) [the created universe].
- $n\bar{u}n = 50$. Access to union. Accomplishment of the fiat. Consummation by fire (tamattu^c bi ittiṣāl, N). gr: sign of the passive; of the indefinite (tan-wīn); corroborative suffix, Hebr: the fish in the sea. Chr: the eternal.²⁷¹ M + Y (Ibn Sīnā).
- sīn = 60. Everlasting glory of God (sanā), the manifestation of His names (N); preaching, gr: sign of future tense. The Hebrew and Syriac letter samekh, meaning promise, assistance (Chr: strength and succor), disappeared in Arabic and was replaced by sīn (obedience to the Commandments), which was doubled (see shīn).²⁷² (Xi = 60).
- ^cayn = 70. Fixed essence; the original meaning (ma^cnä); the source of the intellect (BS). Hebr: eye, perennial spring. Chr: same as in Hebrew.²⁷³

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265. Wāsiti, Qushayri, ap. Baqlî (on Qur. 26); Tirmidhi, ap. Sulamī (on Qur. 20:1).
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^{267.} Baqli on Qur., sūras 19, and 36; cf. Hallaj (Taw., VI, 15; ya wa, Akhb., 39).

^{268.} Bagli on Qur. 19.

^{269.} Meaning established by the Nusayris (catechism of Wolf). Cf. Hallaj on Qur. 7:1, and Taw., VI, 25.

^{270.} Meaning established by the Nusayrīs (Muḥammad) and adopted by Ḥallāj on Qur. 7:1; and Taw., p. 38, 86; tajallī bāṭin al-malkūt li'l-mulk. Cf. Naṣibī; cf. Taw., I, 15; VI, 27; Akhb., 46 [51]).

^{271.} Cf. "Piscis assus, Christus passus."

^{272.} Meaning established by the Nusayris (Salman). Qushayri, according to Baqli (on Qur. 27). Taqdis: Salsal. Ibn Sina makes it the kun.

^{273.} Meaning established by the Nusayris (Alt). Bagli on Qur. 19; cf. Taw., VI, 25.

- (omicron = 70 + omega = 800). Tartib bi'l-Amr (Ibn Sīnā) [the concatenation imprinted on the universe by the Amr].
- *ghayn = 1000. The mystery of the divine plan, the assigned limit (ghayb, ghayra, ghāya, N).
- fā = 80. The link joined or made, the disposition of language [causal linkage]. gr: li'l-ta'qib, tatib, tasabbub. Hebr: mouth (peh). Chr. word, image (pi = 80 + phi = 500).274
- ṣād = 90. Sincerity (saying the truth); exact discrimination (ṣidq, ittiṣāl wa infiṣāl); the spirit (BS). Hebr: justice (tsāde). Chr: truth and sanctity (psi = 700 + sampi = 900).²⁷⁵ L + M + K (lbn Sīnā).
- $\star d\bar{a}d = 800$. Separation. Being deprived of God's presence ($d\bar{a}ll\bar{u}n$).
- $q\bar{a}f = 100$. What is decided, imposed, assured; said, certified ($q\bar{a}la$, $q\bar{a}hir$, N) (Taw. X, 19). Hebr: call (qof). Chr: sure vocation (qoppa = 90). Preassembly of all (= S + Y) (Ibn $S\bar{i}n\bar{a}$).
- $r\bar{a}=200$. What is divided, given out by lot [the announced lot]. The message (rabb; iddā al-ḥuqūq, rasūl ṣadūq, N); the differentiation of the attributes (BS). Hebr: head (resch). Chr: the beginning. Return to the One (=Q+Q) (Ibn Sīnā).
- *shīn = 300. Personal destiny, voluntary fate (mashī a, mashhūd, N) (Taw. X:19). gr: pause (disapproval, remembrance). The double in Arabic, when the Hebrew sīn was made into two letters; obedience to the Commandments (Chr: same as in Hebrew: sigma).
- tā = 400. Signal of ecstasy, discovery, return to God (tawba, N). gr: prefix marking the second person; sign of the feminine; sign of the oath. Equivalent in Arabic of the Hebrew taw (tā) = the end, the conclusion, the signature (Chr: the consummation: tau).²⁷⁶
- *tha = 500. Consolidation, bearing fruit (thubūt, thamara, N).
- The lāmalif [lā], the "last consonant" (Tirmidhī, quest. 141), of which the grammatical function (harf al-salab) is pure indefiniteness, nakira,²⁷⁷ the inverse of the alif-lām [al], the article, whose grammatical function is pure determination (adāt al-ta^crīf).²⁷⁸ For Ibn ^cArabī (Fut, I, 83), alif + lām = wujūd (mutlaq + muqayyad).

The alphabet was used cryptographically in this way in order to denote and combine various bits of metaphysics, as if by algebra. The practice

^{274.} Cf. Qarăfi (ap. Qăsimi, Ușiil, 44).

^{275.} Ḥallāj (on Qur. 7:1); Ja^cfar, ap. Baqlī on Qur. 112; cf. on Qur. 19, Ḥallāj (Akhb., 46 [51]; Ṭaw., VI; IX, 1).

^{276.} Hallaj, ap. Akhb., 39.

^{277.} Tahanuwi, s.n. Which is why Hallaj says, "the knowledge of (isolated) consonants is in the lām-alif..." Cf. Taw., X1, 1.

^{278.} Al-tajallī li'l-āhād.

turned into kabbalistic magic²⁷⁹ under the influence of Shiite gnostic dreamers confusing the use of acronyms with the possession of objects. On this sort of magic, see principally Ismaili and Hurūfi texts.²⁸⁰

^{279.} Like circles and range formulas.

^{280.} Ikhwān al-safā, III, 138-40 ('ilal); Fadl Allah, Jāwīdān (cf. Huart, Textes horoūfis, 189). Cf. the mystical Balaybalan alphabet of Muḥammad Bakrī (Sacy, Notices et extraits..., IX, part 1, 365-96. Cf. Sacy, Druzes, II, 86. Goldziher, ZDMG, 28, 782. On the two Qur²ānic pentads, KHY^c5 [sura 19] and HM^cSQ [sura 42], see Mémorial Avicenne, IV, 6-8. [Cf. Passion, Fr 2:191/ Eng 2:181.] On the seven doubled Arabic letters, see Hégire d'Ismael, 1939, 37-39.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

I. THE INNATE ORIGINALITY OF ISLAMIC MYSTICISM

A. Liturgy

The long inventory above allows us to affirm that the Qur²ān, through constant recitation, meditation, and practice, is the source of Islamic mysticism, at its beginning and throughout its growth. Complete recitals (qi-rā²a)¹ and frequent "rereadings" of the text, which is considered sacred, were the foundation of Sufism, and from these activities developed its distinctive characteristics: reading in groups in a loud voice (dhikr, raf^c alsawt) and the regular sessions established for "recollection," majālis al-dhikr, in which practitioners recited sections of the Qur²ān, as well as prose and verse on related themes for meditation.

These sessions quickly evolved into the traditional spiritual concert or oratorio (samā^c). The affective or emotional part of collective meditation grew, to the detriment of the introduction (preparing the place of meditation) and the conclusion (formulating practical resolutions). The practitioners had a legitimate desire to form a liturgical relation to God; to relive, through solemn collective psalmody, the angel's indirect dialogue with Him Whom the Prophet's consenting soul had heard and obeyed with mute fervor. But the spiritual concert had its dangers. Teachers of Sufism such as Miṣrī, Junayd, and Ḥallāj said again and again that only on condition of self-mastery could a humble soul attract, if God wills, the unpredictable grace of shath, the divine speech that attacks the soul directly through the unwitting reciter's voice, in the form of the consecrated words. Whether or not shath leads the soul to ecstasy (wajd) is a detail of little importance, as Junayd and Ḥallāj remarked.²

Unfortunately, the samā^c was not always conceived in this way; in the fourth/tenth century the Khurāsānian Malāmatiyya³ were denouncing the

^{1.} Reading of the whole text, without pauses or intercalations; practice of the theory of istin-bāṭ (Passion, 1st ed., 43 n 8; 2nd ed. Fr 3:197/Eng 3:185).

^{2.} Passion, Fr 3:253/Eng 3:239.

^{3.} Kharküshi, Tahdhib, f. 12b.

Sufis of Baghdad for throwing themselves into samā^c and dhikr with the kind of secret pleasure or spiritual lust that Ḥallaj had already judged and condemned, particularly in these lines:⁴

It is You, not my dhikr, You, who take me to ecstasy!

Oh! That my heart may never become attached to my dhikr!

Dhikr is the median pearl (of a finely wrought gorget) that hides You from my sight,

When thoughts of it allow my mind to be encircled.

For these Sufis of Baghdād, sessions of dhikr, like certain Welsh revivals, were supposed to bring listeners to ecstasy by force, almost mechanically. The absolutely essential thing, shath, which is the source of macnfa, was confused with ephemeral accessories: the physical tremor of ecstasy (wajd) and the loss of sensory perception. Starting in the fifth/eleventh century, the types of dhikr formulas that were used to obtain the loss of the senses spread and diversified with the development of the orders. Dhikr were litanies of the names of God, and they have been the subject of numerous studies in the West. I have noted elsewhere the formula used by the neo-Hallajian tañqa. It is important to remember that the main procedure for attaining ecstasy remained the chanting of the words from the Quroan.

In the seventh/thirteenth century, groups under the influence of charlatans from India began to use stimulants and depressants, such as the hashish, coffee, and opium (banj, asrār, maslakh) condoned by some of the Qalandariyya. These narcotics served only as supplementary aids, intellectual stimulants, or tools for hypersensitization of the hearing.

What were the results of this disorientation of mysticism in the fourth/tenth century, this deviation towards the stubborn pursuit of ecstatic trances? In addition to the preternatural phenomena (telepathy, prediction, conjuring of objects, etc.) common to all kinds of mysticism (and discussed elsewhere),7 there were certain salient original traits specific to Islam.

The oldest is the raqs, the ecstatic "dance" of jubilation. In the beginning there may have been some sincere, spontaneous cases of this kind of ecstasy. But since then, several religious orders have been artificially attempting to reproduce the original circumstances by forced, concerted theatrics. The circular dance of the Mevlevis, to the sound of the nay (small flute), is well known. It has recently been considered an imitation of planetary rotations and orbits (sic).

^{4.} Taw., 170.

^{5.} Passion, Fr 2:34-35/Eng 2:28-29.

^{6.} Jawbari, Kashf, ms. Paris 4640, f. 23a.

^{7.} Passion, Fr 1:199 ff., 338 ff./Eng 1:155 ff., 291 ff.

^{8.} Passion, Fr 1:632-33/Eng 1:583-84.

The second trait, more suspect, is the tamzīq, the ecstatic "tearing of clothes" during a trance. The practice is dangerously close to hysterical exhibitionism. Shibli tried in vain to prove that it was canonically permissible (in the presence of Ibn Mujāhid, who told the story to Ibn clsā). He saw it as a manifestation of divine arbitrariness comparable to David's slashing the horses in Qur. 38:32. We might see it in the same light as the screaming ecstasies, much like sorcery, that discredit the dhikr sessions of the Rifāciyya (Baṣra), Bayūmiyya (Cairo), and clsāwiyya (dialect "Aissawas," Meknes) in the eyes of the reasonable Muslim public.

The third trait is the extremely suspect nazar ilä'l-murd ("Platonic stare"), a mute, serene gaze at the beautiful faces of the novices sitting in the first row of the circle of initiates (halqa). The stare is performed either before (to provide images for stimulation), during, or after ecstasy. In spite of condemnations by the wisest observers, it was accepted under various pretexts. In answer to the critics, Abū Ḥamza (d. 269) taught¹¹ that looking at what might not be desired was permitted, in order to mortify the desire itself (sic, this is morose voluptuousness). To enter into ecstasy, Aḥmad Ghazālī (d. 517) like to place a rose between himself and the novice's face, as a sign of separation. 12 Ibn Ṭāhir Maqdisī in the twelfth century, and then Nābulusī in the seventeenth, strained to make these esthetes' acrobatics appear legal; they were responding to various scandals caused by such practices, and a lowering of the public's opinion of certain Islamic orders. 13

B. Allegories

The Qur 3 ān 14 is also the source of Islamic mysticism's typical allegories: the fire and light of God (Qur. 28:29; 24:35); the veils of light and darkness placed over the heart (41:4; 39:8); the bird, symbol of the soul's resurrection, or rather its immortality (2:262; 3:43; 67:19); water from the sky (50:9 etc.); the tree representing man's vocation and destiny (28:30; 14:29; 36:80); the cup (ka^2s), the wine ($shar\bar{a}b$), and the salutation ($sal\bar{a}m$; qawl 36:51), symbols of the special ceremony in which the privileged saints ($muqarrab\bar{u}n$) are enthroned in Paradise (56:18, 25; 76:21). Certain

^{9.} Ḥilya; Ibn al-Jawzī (preface to the Ṣafwa) reproaches Abū Nu^caym for putting this anecdote, as well as texts by Muḥāsibī (Maḥabba) and Anṭakī (translated here, below), into his collection.

^{10.} Tremearne's recent studies lead one to think that these practices are in fact infiltrations from animist sorcery.

^{11.} See his anecdotes collected in the Kitāb al-muntammīn of Ahmad Dīnawarī (d. 341; Tagr., 11, 334; Ibn Qutayba, Ta'wīl, 458) and reproduced by Sarrāj (Maṣān', 14, 21, 63, 76, 88, 100, 108, 120-25, 142-43, 166, 227).

^{12.} Ibn al-Jawzi, Nămiu, X1.

^{13.} Passion, Fr 3:254/Eng 3:240

^{14.} And not Pahlavi literature at all.

images peculiar to Ḥallāj are also linked to the Qur³ān, such as the mountain path (ghirbīb, Qur. 35:25), and the new moon (hilāl)¹⁵ as a symbol, generally, of the revelation, and, more specifically, of the appearance of God discovering himself to the soul.

One of these allegories had an exceptional flowering. The enthronement ceremony of the privileged saints in Paradise became the correlative of the mystic's itinerary (safar) in this world. The source of the allegory is the hadīth al-ghibṭa. 16 Certain saints in Paradise will enjoy the greatest glory, which will be conferred on them at the yaum al-mazīd. 17 The theme, borrowed from Raqqāshī by Ibn Adham, 18 condensed by Ibn Ḥanbal, and taken up again by Miṣrī, 19 bursts into magnificent fullness in Muḥāsibi's Kitāb al-tawahhum. 20 After a solemn procession out of the communal Paradise and a banquet served by the Angels, the chosen friends of the divine Essence are greeted by Its own voice. 21 It celebrates their worthiness and brings them into familiarity with It. 22 Kharrāz, Tirmidhī, 23 and Ḥallāj still permitted this allegory, which subsequently shrank and withered because of polemics about divine union and the preeminence of the saints. 24

In the fifth/eleventh century we begin to find the allegory hidden by the very curious poetic symbolism of the monastery (dayr), ²⁵ intended to forestall canonical censure. After a long journey, the saints leave their walking sticks at the door of a monastery, enter, and drink wine poured into goblets by cup-bearers (the sāqī = the Angels). Then, by candlelight $(sham^c)$, a mysterious being suddenly appears and greets them. He has the solemn, beautiful features of a young man $(shabb\ qatat,\ tarsabacheh\ in\ Persia,\ shammās\ in\ the\ Maghreb). The saints prostrate themselves before this Idol, which contains the divine Essence. ²⁸$

This form of the allegory is remarkable. Its features were exaggerated (but, contrary to current orientalist opinion, not invented) by the extreme sensuality of the Persian poets.²⁹ It combines the Qur²anic setting of the

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15. Passion, Fr 3:102-3/Eng 3:91-92; cf. the Jewish Feast of the New Moon.
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^{16.} Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206.

^{17.} Syn.: ziyāda, ziyāra, iļsān; it is the "day of tajallī in Paradise," says the gloss in the Sīra Ḥala-biyya (I, 453).

^{18.} Dāwūd Ṭā³ī also speaks of the "wine of joy" (^cAssār, I, 222).

^{19. &}quot;The cup of love" (Makki, Qit, I, 225; Attar, I, 126).

^{20.} F. 152-71 of the ms. Oxford Huntington 611.

^{21.} And no longer by the voice of a munadi.

^{22.} He gives them not only the vision (ru²ya) but also life together (munddama).

^{23.} Khātam (Khatin), quest. 74, 119, 128, 129; and ap. Hilya, s.n.

^{24.} Passion, Fr 3:220-21/Eng 3:208.

^{25.} Ibid., Fr 3:255-56/Eng 3:241-42. Cf. Shushtari, Diwan.

^{26.} Shābistari, Golshan-i-rāz, ch. 15 (syn.: butt, wathan, dumiya).

^{27.} Cf. Abū Ḥulmān (Passion, 1st ed., 362; cf. P Fr 2:62-3, 140-41/Eng 2:55-6, 130-31.

^{28.} Cf. the adoration of the Rawda, a sacred virgin, among Ismailis.

^{29.} Jashin, lab, zulaf, rukli, khaff, khāl (Shābistarl, op. cit. ch. 13).

yawm al-mazīd with the poetic scenery of the Christian convent, to which the pre-Islamic Arab poets and their Bedouin caravan leaders used to come for wine.³⁰

2. Concordance of Mysticism's Basic Problems with Those of Dogmatic Theology (Kalām)

Because mysticism is simply inner experimentation upon the proper practice of a religion, it is always possible³¹ to make a tabular one-to-one concordance of mystical temini technici (iṣṭilāḥāt) and the corresponding theoretical loci (masā³il) of dogma.³² I have pursued this work in detail for the first three centuries of Islam.³³ The results confirm the existence of a strict parallel in development between Islamic dogma and mysticism.

The principal results can be summarized as follows:

a) EXPERIMENTAL CONCEPTS OF MYSTICISM THAT CORRESPOND TO THE PROBLEMS OF DOGMA

Divine justice (^cadl); conciliation of precept and decree — riḍā (Hasan), leading to discussion of the reality of the aḥwāl (Miṣrī, Muḥāsibī; against Junayd); tawakkul (Shaqīq), leading to discussion about the permissibility of the aksāb (Thawrī, Muḥāsibī, Tustarī; Tirmidhī; against Shaqīq, lbn Karrām, Nūrī); for or against "poverty".³⁴

How can we reconcile divine "movement" of our actions with the transcendence of the divine act? Hasan's tafwīd. How does God move us? In preeternity (Ibn Sālim's taf cīl, Wāsiṭi's qidam al-muḥdathāt, Abū Amr Dimishqi's azaliyyat al-anwār), or by an innovation of grace (actual: takhlīq of lbn Karrām; actualized: taqaddum al-shawāhid of Fāris), or by the Ḥallajian fiat. How does the divine "motion," inserted between the two khāṭir, operate in man? As an opportune memory (fā'ida), an intellectual light (anwār), or a persuasive presence (shawāhid).35

b) THE DOGMA OF DIVINE UNITY

How can the incomparability of (balkafiyya) of revealed attributes be affirmed? the mystical experience of tanzīh: the anitithetical attributes (Abū

- 30. Abū Nuwās perversely amalgamated this literary tradition and the glorification of antiphysical love. Cf. ch. 4 n 514.
- 31. As 1 have indicated in the Actes du IVe Congrès International d'histoire des religions (1912), Leiden, 1913, 121-22.
- 32. The same sort of concordance should be made for mystical terms and their loci in the hadith (isnād, mursal, samā^c and in the usūl al-fiqh (dalīl, niyya, istinbāt).
 - 33. Passion, ch. 11 and 12.
 - 34. Passion, Pr 3:239 n 6/Eng 3:225 n 31.
 - 35. Passion, Fr 3:120 ff., 34/Eng 3:108 ff., 26-27.

Hamza's qurb wa bu'd, Khartāz's ghayba wa hudūr and sanā wa baqā; takhalluq [bi asmā Allah or bi akhlāq Allah]). Passing from tajrīd to tawhīd (Ḥallāj). Is the attribute "love" essential (Qur. 36:25)? Inseparability of the attributes and the essence (Ḥallāj).³⁶

Modes of the transforming union (Kharrāz's cayn al-jamc; hulūl al-fawā'id (Muḥāsibī, Ibn Karrām), then zuhūr al-anwār (Tustarī, Tirmidhī, Wāsiṭī), finally tajallī al-shawāhid (Ḥallāj, Fāris). What becomes of the human personality (nafs, ruḥ; anā, anniyya). 17

Is the Qur³rān created or uncreated? Experimental differentiation among ma⁵nä, lafz, and nuțą (Ibn Ḥanbal, Muḥāsibī; Ḥallāj).¹⁸

c) ESCHATOLOGICAL PROBLEMS

Is faith enough for salvation? Experimental information about the necessary minimum of hope (Yahyä Rāzī's rajā) and attrition* (Tustarī's tawba). Distinction between ^caql and qalb, between mu²min and ^cārif (Ibn Karrām, Muḥāsibī, against the majority, whose opinion was followed by Tustarī and Tirmidhī). Will it be possible to see the divine essence? Notion of the transfiguring tajallī (Rabāḥ, cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd) as opposed to merely intellectual awareness (ru²ya). What will be the recompenses of Paradise? Notions if iḥsān, iṣṭifā²iyya, ghibṭa.³⁹

d) LEGAL STATUS OF ACTS

Is the use of naming, which applies the name to the named thing, always legitimate? Is Qur³anic hikāya permissible? Concept of the da^cwä, legitimate preaching of the huwa huwa (Tustarī, Ḥallāj), differentiation of cilm and ma^crifa. Notions of istimā^c and istinbāṭ. The problem of observation (taḥaqquq), as distinguished from reality (ḥaqqqa) and the Real (Ḥaqq). Attributability of acts, responsibility of agents.⁴⁰

e) POLITICS

Differentiation of prophet and saint: the characteristic of infallibility and the grace of impeccability. Equality of rank among the prophets.41

Certain experiences of the mystics have even contributed to the found-

^{*&}quot;Attrition" in the sense of incomplete penitence for one's sins, based on fear of retribution.

^{16.} Passion, Fr 1:141 ff., 117 ff./Eng 1:128 ff. 105 ff.

^{37.} Passion, Fr 3:181, 32 ff., 23 n 2, 52 ff., 375-76/Eng 3:169, 25 ff., 16 n 29, 44 ff., 356-58.

^{18.} Passion, Fr 3:154 ff./Eng 3:141 ff.

^{39.} Passion, Fr 3:159-61, 24 n 2, 162, 176, 218/Eng 3:146-48, 17 n 36, 149-50, 163-64, 206.

^{40.} Passion, Fr 3:93-94, 192, 70, 197, 85-88/Eng 3:83, 180, 60, 185, 74-77.

^{41.} Passion, Fr 3:211-12, 220-21/Eng 3:199, 208-9.

ing of schools of dogmatic theology; Fadliyya, Bakriyya, Karrāmiyya, Sālimiyya. I have shown that in this sense Ḥallāj was recognized as the true leader of a school (Ḥallājiyya).

3. LIST OF DOGMATIC CRITICISMS INCURRED

The precise moral and dogmatic range of the theses experimentally established by the Muslim mystics can be measured by the censures they incurred from various jurists and canonical authorities.

The Imamis were the first to react. They condemned Hasan Basri for three theses: wacz, or the precept of fraternal correction (without dissimulation or violence); ridā, the state of reciprocal contentment between God and the soul; Hasan's "compromise" between predestination and free will.⁴²

Next, they condemned Abū Hāshim ^cUthmān ibn Sharik of Kūfa. He had offended them by his monastic rule ($kh\bar{a}nq\bar{a}h$), his habit ($s\bar{u}f$), and his doctrine of physical premovement (jabr).⁴³

Nevertheless, there were still mystics among the Imāmī traditionists at Kūfa until about 220/835. Most notable were Kulayb, 'Abdak, 'Abdallah ibn Yazīd ibn Qinṭāsh Hudhalī, and the illustrious poet Abū'l-'Atāhiya of the Butriyya Zaydī sect.⁴⁴ Nevertheless, as early as the third/ninth century, Imāmīs and Zaydīs had agreed that the mystics were to be outlawed.⁴⁵

The Khārijites accepted some ascetic penitential practices, but they condemned Hasan Baṣrī for his refusal to revolt, his submission to authority, and his theory that the intention is more important than the external work.⁴⁶ The Khārijites never ceased condemning mysticism.

The Sunnis were much more divided. The first censures had their source in the strict traditionist (Ḥashwiyya) circles where the mystics were classified as zanādiqa (Manichaeans), a subclass of the Rūḥāniyya ("spirituals"). Abū Dāwūd Sijistānī (d. 275), author of the Sunan, condemns⁴⁷ a "group of four [sic] zanādiqa": "Rabāḥ,⁴⁸ Abū [Muḥammad]⁴⁹ Ḥabīb, Ḥayyān,⁵⁹ Ḥarīrī, and Rābica." Among the group are two saints who have be-

^{42.} Tabarsi, Ilitijaj, 167-68, 170, 172, 161.

^{43.} Bahbahānī, Khayrātiyya, f. 241b. See however Passion, Fr 3:119 n 4/Eng 3:107 n 66. Jacfar's bull [edict] (Tarā²iq, I, 112).

^{44.} Muhāsibī, Makāsib, f. 87; and Passion, Fr 1:361/Eng 1:314.

^{45.} Passion, Fr 2:22, 44/Eng 2:16, 38.

^{46.} Below, ch. 4, sec. 3.

^{47.} In Dhahābi, I tidāl, s.n. Riyāh (sk).

^{48.} Marked with two dots instead of one, making it Riyāḥ; the passage shows that he meant Rabāḥ Qaysī.

^{49.} Thinking of Habib Ajami, I suggest this intercalation.

^{50.} Marked Hibban. He probably meant Hayyan Qaysi (Passion, Fr 3:126/Eng 3:114), a shortening of the name Abū'l-'Alā Hayyan ibn 'Umayr Qaysi, the rāwi of Ibn 'Abbās and Ibn Samura (Ibn Sa'd, VII, 137, 165).

come universally revered. The heresiographer Khashīsh Nasa²ī (d. 253) explains this condemnation of the mystics. Some, he says 51 [he is speaking of Dārānī], pretend that by virtue of meditation (fikriyya) they may enjoy (in this world) the spiritual life of God, the angels, and the prophets, and dine with the houris. Other mystics, he says, including Kulayb and Rabah, teach that when love of God has supplanted all other attachments in the heart (khulla), legal bans are no longer valid (nukhas). And some, such as Ibn Hayvan, teach a method of ascetic training (especially of the diet) that so mortifies yearnings for the flesh (and repugnances) that when the training is finished the "ascetic" gains licence to everything (ibāha). Another group [including Rabāh and Kulayb] maintains that the heart is distracted when mortification becomes too vigorous; it is better to yield immediately to one's inclinations; 52 the heart, having experienced vanity, can then detach itself from vain things without regret.53 One last group, according to Nasa²i, affirms that asceticism (zuhd) is applicable only to things forbidden by religious law, that enjoying permitted wealth is good⁵⁴ and that riches are superior to poverty.55

These more or less tendentious charges are aimed at the quietist deformation of mysticism: khulla, ibāḥa, tafḍil al-ghanī.

At first, the accusations of Sunni Mu^ctazilite heresiographers were directed only at individuals. Kahmas (d. 149) was indicted for holding that God could be perceived "by the sense of touch" (mulāmasa); 'Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd (d. 177) was faulted for his claim that it was possible to see God "in this world, in proportion to one's good works," which leads to hulūl; Abū Shu^cayb Qallāl (d.c. 170), for maintaining that "God rejoices in or is saddened by" the acts of His saints. ¹⁶

In the following century, Mu^ctazilite theologians became more generally and violently critical. They stigmatized the "mystical states and stations" professed by Dhū'l-Nūn Miṣrī, the superiority of saints to prophets affirmed by Ibn abī'l-Ḥawwārī,⁵⁷ and the doctrine of transforming union (muṭā^c) preached by Ḥallāj. Bisṭāmī (subḥānī, janna, mi^crāj), Kharrāz (taqdīs, cayn al-jam^c, and Tustarī were sentenced to banishment; finally, Ḥallāj and Ibn caṭā were put to death.

Moderate Sufi writers subsequently began to reserve a chapter of their

^{51.} In Istiqāma, extract ap. Malati, f. 160-67.

^{52.} Cf. the Rasputinism so frequent among Slavs (even Soloviev is inclined to it: Trois entretions, Fr. trans. Tavernier, 56-60).

^{53.} Ibn Adham interrupts a fast to receive a friend (Thawri, ap. Makki, Qiit, 11, 177, 180). Cf. Dărâni (in Makki, Qiit, 11, 174-75).

^{54. &}quot;Eating delicious dishes in an incitation to find satisfaction in God" (sic: Dārāni, ap. Makki, Qūt, II, 177-79).

^{55.} Proposition of Yahya Razi. Cf. Passion, same references as in n 34.

^{56.} Ash ari, Maqalat, f. 972.

^{57.} Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmūs, XI.

manuals for the special heretical dangers to which one is exposed by mysticism. Sarrāj, in his Luma^c, s⁸ makes a list: tafḍīl al-ghanī, fanā ([^can] al-^cubūdiyya, al-bashariyya, al-awṣāf), ḥulūl (bi'l-anwār, bi'l-shawāhid, bi'l-mustaḥsanāt), tafḍīl al-walī, ibāḥa, faqd al-iḥsās, the question of the Rūḥ.

In the Ghalaṭāt, 59 Sulamī makes the same list more systematic. He adds nu³ya fī'l-qulūb and shaṭḥ. On the other hand, he defends 60 the legality of the following "dispensations" (nukhaṣ): raqṣ, samāc, curs, naẓar ilä'l-murd; Hujwīrī only mentions them [with tamzīq (kharq)] in his Kashf 61 in order to register his disapproval. In the Iḥyā, Ghazālī takes the same position as Sulamī, more or less.

Ibn Tāhir Maqdisī, in the Ṣafwa, also justifies the dispensations (mizāḥ, tamzīq, raqṣ, samā^c; a small piece on the naẓar). He was the first to give the characteristic formula of spiritual discipline, "obedience is more important than observance" ("al-khidma afḍal min al-cibāda"); therefore, in spite of the resulting scandal over pharisaism, a spiritual guide can tell a disciple not to say a certain prayer, not to go to the mosque on a given Friday, not to make the pilgrimage, if God (and his own soul) command it.

On the subject of later Susism, it is useful to consult Turkumānī (Luma^c), ⁶² Shāṭibī (I^ctiṣām), and ^cAbdarī (Mudkhal), ⁶³ who made long lists of the bida^c, innovations, for which they reproached the mystics. On Susism in Turkey there is Hammer's analysis, published long ago, of the arguments between the schools of the religious jurist Abū'l-Su^cūd and the mystic Berkevi, and the twenty-one points for which the canonical authority Qā-dizādeh reproached the mystic Sīwāsī in 1066/1656. ⁶⁴ In the last hundred years, analogous polemics have appeared periodically, in a slew of pamphlets in Egypt, Mecca, and Java-Sumatra.

4. SPECIALIZED APPROPRIATION OF TECHNICAL TERMS

The doctors of sacred law and dogma make numerous complaints against the mystics. The one most important here concerns the special meaning, the incomparable experimental flavor, that the mystics suppose adheres to and inheres in each technical term or set of root letters chosen from the vast resources of ordinary Arabic language. In mystical thought, these terms are not simply images stripped of their sense objects, or schematized frames for rational concepts. Above all, they are allusions pointing to

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58. Ed. Nicholson, 409 ff.
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^{59.} Ms. Cairo VII, 228. Cf. Passion, Fr 1:249/Eng 3:235, and all of ch. 13.

^{60.} Sunan, ap. Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmis.

^{61.} Nicholson trans., 416 ff.

^{62.} Luma fi'l-liawadith wa'l-bida, ms. Cairo, tasaww., no. 701.

^{63.} These two books were printed in Cairo.

^{64.} Hammer, Gesch. Osm. Reich., VI, 679, and V, 576.

the spiritual realities, the sanctifying virtues, that only the persistent practice of a concerted rule for living can allow the mystic to discover and savor, as he gradually acquires them. He must put the words into practice before he can understand them. This doctrine of the aḥwāl and the maqāmāt, which Miṣrī and Muḥāsibī made explicit, is characteristic of all mysticism. It is congenital to Sufism.

The ability, which poets possess, to engrave the characteristic mark of personal experience of the universe onto common words, is even greater in mystics. This phenomenon can be seen as early as Hasan Baṣrī, who used ordinary words, 65 such as fiqh, niyya, nifāq, nidā, 66 for internal experiment and moral introspection, by which he deepened their range remarkably. Ibn al-Mubārak 67 did the same for qirā 268 and futuwwa, Shaqīq for tawakkul. The new usage was explained in definitions that were later modified and refined by the nuances of successors' personal experiments.

These terms have no absolute worth out of context. They are valuable only in relation to their common goal, like distance markers on a road. On the "soul's road towards God" they represent successive stages. Each one of them can be understood by gradual assimilation; Harawi's Manāzil $al-s\bar{a}^2ir\bar{n}$ systematically explains how the meaning of a single word is deepened as the mystical experiment progresses.

The technical terms undergo a gradual warping. Their deliberate, growing appropriation for a meaning more and more personal and enlivening to the reader is only one stage on the way to the happy conclusion of the inner journey. The reader is given a direct warning (cibra) intended to awaken his conscience; his thought is dissociated from the appearances and forms of human actions and works. His attention is focused on the inner part of his actions, on the divine grace giving a distinct mode to what is actualized in him. Hallaj notes, "When works are considered, He for Whom the works are accomplished is lost from sight. When He in Whose sight we act is considered, the consideration of acts becomes invisible." That is the goal.

Finally, in all phrases or actions, even those that appear the least important, the attentive mystic grasps the anagogic sense (muṭṭala^c), which is a divine call. Then a dialogue begins between the humble, meditating soul and the transcendent, divine Wisdom. For the soul, words take on the fullness specific to their momentary reality, in which God is heard to speak; the soul reforms its vocabulary in the image of the divine speech. At the threshold of mystical union, the phenomenon of shath intervenes.

^{65.} Not artificial words, as in Ibn 'Arabi's later school.

^{66.} Makkî, Qūt, I, 153; Sh. Tab., I, 29; Passion, Fr 3:44/Eng 3:36.

^{67.} Makki, Qiit, I, 251.

^{68.} Tagarra's in the sense of tanassaka (Goldziher).

An exchange, a switching of roles through love, is offered; the consenting soul, without suspecting it, is invited to desire, and to express in the first person, the point of view of the Beloved Himself. Shath is the supreme test of the soul's humility and the seal of its election.

The first sketches of shath appear in Ibn Adham and Rābi^ca; Bisṭāmī describes his intoxication at a glimpse of it; Ḥallaj gives undeniable instances of shath, of which he also provides penetrating psychological analyses. Shiblī alludes to shath frequently.⁶⁹

After Shibli, cases of it in Islamic mysticism become rarer, and their value declines. The shathiyāt attributed to Kilāni, Rifāci, and Ibn Arabi are almost unreadable in comparison to those of their great ancestors. The giddy pride that already intrudes in Bistāmī and Tustarī pushes those later mystics to make embarrassingly puerile statements:70 "My foot is on the neck of all the saints," "Here am I, the Throne of God," etc. They submit to the theologians and make every effort to maintain the distance between inaccessible divine transcendence and acts of worship; then, in revenge, they take pride in being at least beyond the range of other men.

5. THE QUESTION OF FALSE ATTRIBUTIONS

A. Hadith Mursal and Hadith Qudsi

Shath is ecstatic language: the mystic claims to be a simple mouthpiece, the inert bearer of another voice, a channel for the word of God. The phenomenon of shath is the key to two of early Islam's particular features, studied in hadith under the names hadith mursal (loosened)⁷¹ and hadith qudsi (sacred).

In the third century A.H., the founders of the critical science of the hadith indignantly denounced various "falsifiers" (wadda un) for inventing and spreading statements supposedly of the Prophet, which, of course, they would have been unable to trace by genealogy (isnād) from witness

69. The most complete collection of the theopathic speech (shathiyāt) of the first Muslim mystics is the one compiled by Rūzbihān Baqlī (d. 606 A.H.) during his great labors on Ḥallāj. It appeared in Arabic under the title Manṭiq al-asrār bibayān al-anwār; then in Persian (with alterations) is Shath al-shaṭliyāt. H. Ritter has reproached me for not publishing these texts, after using them for so many years. No "Lexicon of Mystical Terms in Islam" could be published before an edition of Baqlī's work. H. Corbin and A. R. Badawi are considering one. [Shath-e shathiyāt, H. Corbin, ed., Tehran and Paris: Institut Franco-Iranien, Bibliothèque iranienne, XII, 1966. The Arabic text of the Manṭiq has not yet been edited.] I was at least able to give an analysis of Baqlī's two collections, in "La vie et les oeuvres de Rūzbehān Baqlī" in Florilege Pedersen, Copenhagen, 1953, 282-86 [Opera Minora, II].

70. How infinitely preferable is the humble response of Naşızbādhī, when he was told, "There is nothing in you of what makes true lovers": "It's true, I have nothing of theirs except their sobs; and those sobs set me afire" (Qush. 172).

^{71.} Goldziher, Muh. Stud., II, 141.

to witness back to the putative source. Certainly there were counterfeiters, motivated, for example, by economic interest, political ambition, sectarian bias, and even the perverse desire to deceive. The muhaddithūn identified an additional category of fraud, to be distinguished from the others: sāliḥūn, pious men, inventing hadīth "in order to touch the hearts of the people," and fabricating imaginary isnād in order to spread their sayings. These are either simple calls to prayer, penitence, or love of God, or promises of comprehensive indulgences (rukhas) in exchange for the performance of supererogatory acts. The mentality of these falsifiers is more complex than that of the others, and it merits more careful study.

In the third century, some of the pious men, being caught in the act, had, at least according to their admissions, fabricated isnād, as the cases of Abū clṣma Abdī, and Ghulām Khalīl apparently show. They illustrate the eventual absorption and perversion of a psychological process having its origin, and its early permissible forms, in the preceding centuries. With the caution of men of the world, the pious falsifiers were trying to use legitimate chains of transmission as a protective cover. They wanted to continue to tap and channel information about dogma and custom from their preternatural source: the divination or mysticism and states of dreaming or ecstasy in which they consulted Muhammad and other deceased prophets, and even questioned God supernaturally.

There were several methods to evoke the prophets, most notably Zu-hri's, 75 used by Ibn CUkkāsha in the famous dream in which he consulted Muḥammad. (Ibn Ḥanbal attested to this event's authenticity before Mutawakkil.) 76 The earliest mystics published communications directly obtained from a dead prophet as hadīth mursal, i.e., authoritative prophetic texts permitting no dispute. 77 The commentator allowed himself to "loosen" or shorten the isnād, because the hadīth's content was so convincing.

The second case is hadith qudsi: in the statements collected in mystical experiments, God speaks directly, in the first person (and not indirectly, quoted as an interlocutor, as in the Quran). Here, a grave problem is posed by direct mystical union (superior to indirect prophetic revelation). Most of the first Muslim mystics did not dare to make an open claim to it. Hasan Başrī and the pseudo-Jafar gave their aḥādīth qudsiyya as marāsil (of Muḥammad). After trying to be more straightforward, Ibn Adham

^{72.} Goldziher, Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., 43-45.

^{73.} Mālik ibn Dīnār was already reproaching Abān ibn abī 'Ayyāsh for this (Dhahabī, I'udāl. s.v.). Cf. Passion, Fr 3:218-19./Eng 3: 206-7.

^{74.} Goldziher, Muh. Stud., 11, 155-56.

^{75.} And Ibn Sirin's: the istikhāta, which, if performed in private, remained legal.

^{76.} Malati, Tanbih, f. 28-30.

^{77.} Resulting in this sense of the word mursal (cf. asmā mursala, as opposed to mudāfa, in A. M. Kindi, 34; and the maşlalıa mursala of the Malikites).

retreated⁷⁸ and gave a hadith qudsī as a mursal of John the Baptist. Others gave them as sayings of David, Idrīs, etc.⁷⁹ Dārānī, taking more extreme measures, refused to divulge any of his ecstatic experimental results (tankīt al-haqīqa), except those explicitly confirmed by Qur²ānic and traditional authority. Bistāmī confessed them in the same way, emitting Qur²ānic words almost completely removed from their contexts as choppy, ecstatic cries in the first person. Tirmidhī, without giving further details, said that his results were a confirmation of the traditional discipline he was imposing upon his inner life. Like the others, Ḥallāj had found aḥādīth qudsiyya through mystical experimentation; he alone was honest enough to publish them as such. They are his Riwāyāt, of which the isnād is ilhāmī (ecstatic); 80 he set forth not a historical succession of dead witnesses but a contemporaneous ensemble of phenomena in which divine grace is affirmed.⁸¹

The traditionists' critical polemic against the "apocryphal" aḥādīth of the mystics is of a great importance. As the arguments become more and more acrimonious, they underscore an irremediable divergence of points of view. Ḥammād ibn Salama stigmatizes the "ignorance" of the quṣṣāṣ. ⁸² Yaḥyā ibn Sa^cīd Qaṭṭān, speaking of Mālik ibn Dīnār, Muḥammad ibn Wāsi^c, and Ḥassān ibn abī Sinān, declares that "the most condemnable thing about the conduct of the pious with respect to ḥadīth is that they accept them from any source." Posed like this, the problem raises two questions, one of method and one of morality.

If the muḥaddithūn had succeeded in imposing their method and eliminating all hadīth with apocryphal isnād from the "authentic" collections, believers would now have only dried meat⁸⁴ to feed meditation: a few prescriptions concerned only with hygiene and civility, sandal cleaning,

^{78.} Makki, Qūt, II, 67.

^{79.} Cf. Jalal Rümi attributing his lines to Shams Tabrīzī, Musaffar Sibti attributing his Madnün şaghīr to Ghazāli.

^{80.} Passion, Fr 3:344-52/Eng 3:327-34.

^{81.} In the beginning, the hadith qudsi was an indirect means of putting "theopathic speech" into circulation by tracing it to Holy Scripture, in which God spoke in the first person. This aberrant branch of the hadith played a fundamental role in the history of Sufism, and, more generally, in the history of prayer formulas and forms of devotion in Islam. It has not yet been studied systematically. An elementary study by Zwemer (in MW 1922, 263-75) refers to the following monographs on the hadith qudsi: Ibn Arabi (G.A.L. I, 441; there is the collection of Arba in by his disciple Qunyawi); Munawi (Gotha ms.); Madani (Athāfi sīniyya, printed in Haydarabād, 1323); Nabhāni (Jāmi). There are some ahādīth qudsiyya among the Imāmis (Khuṭbat al-bayān). There are references below for the study of the most important hadīth qudsi (list, ch. 3, sec. 5. B.): the hadīth of the kūnī (ch. 4 sec. 3. D.), the hadīth al-ahdād (ch. 5, sec. 1. B.), the hadīth al-'shq, the hadīth al-ikhlās (ch. 4, sec. 5. A.) and the hadīth al-abdād (above, ch. 1, s.v. BDL). Cf. also Abū Dharr (in Hilya, VI, 163, life of Shirk); Rāghib Pasha, Safīna, 162. [See William A. Graham's Divine Word, and relevant findings in Juynboll's Muslim Tradition.]

^{82.} Except for Bunāni, (Ibn al-Jawzi, Qussās, s.v.).

^{83.} Dhahabi, I tidal, s.v.

^{84.} Qadid. The word is used to Abū Madyan of Tlemcen.

and the right wood for making toothpicks. Purely formal criticism of isnād is ideally no more than a servant who sweeps the house. If it becomes the basis for constituting the corpus of Islamic tradition, and if a given religious precept's social rank and importance are simply made to correspond to the degree of soundness of its textual transmission, the result is the undue elimination of the most important precepts. In theory and in private judgment, the acceptability of a witness should be examined before the content of his testimony,85 but in practice and in society the content must take precedence. In order to obtain exceptionally valuable testimony in a court of law, there is no hesitation to change the manner of questioning witnesses, or even to force their confessions. A method of historical criticism that only accepts the accounts of witnesses who are professionally honorable, 86 summoned and recorded by proper procedure, will miss 87 most of the unusual events and, in recording the others, will fall into all possible traps of prejudice and personal interest, which the forgers of documents will have set for gullible, positivistic investigators.

Next, the question of morality. The ahl al-hadīth school, from Yahyā Qattan to Ibn al-Jawzi and Dhahabi, condemned the "perversity" of authors who, like Raqqashi, Namiri, Murri, Muhasibi, and, later, Makki and Ghazālī, had cited apocryphal ahādīth in their works. They would have been reprehensible only if they had acted knowingly (as Ibn Tāhir Magdisī seems to have done),88 which is not the case of Muhāsibi or Ghazālī. For these two teachers, the important thing was not to know whether a quotation was reproduced word for word, complete and unabridged, or whether X or Y had first put it into circulation, but to appreciate and taste its worth as a rule for living, by ceasing to quibble over the form in order to experience the sense. 89 Of course Ghazālī stuffed his Ihyā with hadīth whose isnād is indefensible. The point is secondary; the Iliyā is not a manual of textual criticism but a guide for moral edification. Ghāzalī took little care over the genealogy of the quotations he was collecting, and very great care over their moral significance for the reader. He was writing not for curious amateur archeologists but for consciences avid for moral meditation.

We are led to one last question: how to assess the guilt of those moralists who knowingly became waddā^cūn, or inventors of hadīth. It is no doubt

^{85.} Passion, Fr 1:341/Eng 1:294.

^{86.} Udal of Islamic jurisprudence.

^{87.} As if, in order to understand a diplomatic negotiation, the historian could permit himself to read only ministerial telegrams printed in the "blue" or "yellow" books; cf. a battle according to the operational memoranda of the military command; a parliamentary debate according to official newspapers; any biography according to the documents intended for administrative archives (city hall, notaties, police).

^{88.} Safwa. Cf. Maysara, a suft of Abbadan (Goldziher, M. St., II, 394).

^{89.} Cf. also Ibn Sina and the philosophers.

a mistake, an act of cowardice, to disguise the invention of an isnād; but the preliminary, venial fault should not compromise the hadīth itself, which will have currency among believers by virtue of its content, not by reason of its date of origin. Ohhādīth are essentially rules of conduct, condoned hic et nunc. Is it permitted to invent an imaginary sentence, if it is related to a case of conscience? The question is such that it engages the whole problem of artistic invention and personal originality of style. Solutions vary enormously between civilizations derived, on the one side, from Indo-European linguistic tradition, and, on the other, from Semitic tradition.

The Semitic tradition since Abrahamic and Mosaic monotheism was introduced⁹¹ has restricted all creative initiative and innovation to God alone. Except for revelations planned and solemnly brought to pass by Him, all private inspirations, especially the profane fancies of the poets, are treated with extreme mistrust. The Aryan tradition, from the beginning polytheistic, idolatrous, and favorable to individual liberty, has been satisfied with fables, artistic and literary fictions, painting or sculpture, drama or romance. All of these things are denounced by the Semites either as man's blasphemous usurpation of the role of God, the only giver of life, or as a sacrilegious conception of the truth of God, when He is suspected of telling fables⁹² to His servants.

Through deeper meditation, the Muslim mystics conquered their repugnances and came to admit that the fact of divine omnipotence did not exclude the exercise and celebration of His gifts to men. The artist is but a perishable image of what the saint may become: the free and living instrument of the one Poet, the creative Power. Parables, even about God, may be told, as long as the teller forgets himself, and the parables cause the hearers to think of Him.

This attitude is explained very well at the end of Plato's Gorgias (sec. 79): "... Listen, then, as they say, to this very lovely story. Perhaps you will believe it is a fable, but for me it is a true story, and I wish you would regard all I am going to tell you as the truth." The mystics conceive the parables of their catechism as true prophecies that will be verified in time, but which can only be said to be "true" insofar as they have been realized. The truth of their parables is observed a posteriori in what they produce in society, in the swarm of imitations, the teeming variety of images, synonyms, and viable applications they provoke in those who have listened to them attentively. This truth is difficult to grasp, alas; the experience of it is

^{90.} Like a museum piece in an antique shop.

^{91.} Artistic imagination was intense among the Chaldeans and Phoenicians.

^{92.} The question of the "historical" books of the Old Testament.

^{93.} Cf. the tale of Er the Armenian; and that of Thespesios (in Plutarch, Delays).

limited to those who are found worthy, or who have been humble enough to admit their unworthiness in advance.

B. Authors Responsible for Certain Famous Aḥādīth Qudsiyya

- Abū Dharr: "man taqarrab ... shibran ... dhirā an ..." (Muḥāsibī, Ri aya, 12a, attributes it to lbn Musayyab); * Hanbal V, 153; Nabhānī, Jāmi , no. 30).
- Ka^cb: "anā jalīs man dhakaranī" and the hadīth al-jumjuma (according to Ḥilya, s.v.).
- Hudhayfa: "yad Allah mac (var: calā) al-jamāca" (Ḥanbal, I, 406; taken up by Ibn Iyāḍ, according to Malaṭī, 143; Ibn Baṭṭa Ukbarī, Sharḥ wa ibāna); and the ḥadīth al-ibtilā (Cf. Passion, Fr 3:127 n 2/Eng 3:115 n 123; Muttaqī, Kanz, V, 164; attributed by Ibn al-Jawzī, Mawḍūcāt, to Yamān ibn Adī).
- Ibn Mas^cūd: "ṭūbā liman lam yushghil qalbahu bimā tarā ^caynāhu . . ." (Muḥāsibī, Ri^cāya, 15a; later attributed to Jesus; cf. Asin, Logia, no 20).
- Hasan Baṣrī: "man cashiqanī cashiqtuhu..." (according to cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd; ap. Hilya, s.v.; included by Ibn Sīnā in his cIshq); "taŋīḥ midād al-culamā calā dam al-shuhadā" (Manjanīqī, ap. Suyūṭī, La alī, s s.v.; then admitted as a ḥadīth via Ibn cUmar, according to Kürküt, Harīmī; cf. Hasan's pronouncement to the contrary, in Ibn Qutayba, cUyūn, II, 295); "yā muqallib al-qulūb, thabbit..." (according to Ibn Sacd, IV, 128; Ibn cIyād made it a ḥadīth, according to the Ḥilya); "Khayr al-umūr awsaṭuhā" (clqd, 1, 250, according to Goldziher, RHR, XVIII, 193).
- Yazid Raqqāshī: hadīth ghibṭat al-mutahābbīn (Makkī, Qūt, I, 222; compare Nabhānī, Jāmic, no. 31).
- Ibrahim ibn Adham: "Kuntu sam ahu wa basarahu" (according to Muhāsibi, Maḥabba [see herein, ch 5 n 72], cf. Makkī, Qūt, II, 67; accepted by Bukhārī); "al-arīf fārighan ..." (Id.; cf. Passion, Fr 3:15/Eng 3:8).
- Fudayl ibn ^cIyād (cf. supra): "udhkurūnī adhkurukum" (according to the London Or ms. 8049, f. 30b).
- Aḥmad Jawbiyārī: "uṭlubū al-cilm, walaw bi'l-Ṣīn" (accepted by Ibn Karrām; Dhahabī, Ictidāl, s.v.).
- Yaḥyā ibn Mu^cādh Rāzī: "man ^carafa nafsahu, faqad ^carafa Rabbahu" (according to Suyūṭī, La⁵ālī, s.v.; Ibn ^cArabī, Muḥāḍarāt, II, 369).
- Sahl Tustarī: "mā min āya ... illā walahā arba ma anī" (according to Tustarī, Tafsīr, 3, 6; accepted by Ghazālī, Ladunniyya, 16).
- Muhammad ibn Yūnus Kadīmī (d. 286, at 100 years of age): "uṭlubū'l-ḥawā'ij

^{* &}quot;rawiya Abû Hurayra ...," Smith's ed., p. 20.

^{94.} Talbis, 181. Sari extracts a portion "of one of the revealed books" (Qush., III, 165). 95. Suyūti, Durar, 199; Ghazāli, Ihyā, I, 6.

'ind ḥisān al-wujūh'' (accepted by Sulami, Ibn Sinā ['Ishq]; cf. Dhahabī, I'tidāl, s.v.).

C. Initiatory Isnād, al-Khidr, the Abdāl

The deception of false attributions was perhaps excusable in mystics who had no civic heroism from which to benefit, but who nevertheless wished, under borrowed names, to initiate their contemporaries into the experiences of their spiritual lives. Unfortunately, the practice spread to areas in which authenticity was fundamental. One such problem, hotly debated, especially from the fifth/eleventh century onward, was initiatory isnād, the "chain of mystical supports" attaching orders, link by link, to the most venerated saints, the Companions, and the Prophet.

Muḥāsibi's works (Naṣā³iḥ) prove that, in the third/ninth century, the question of initiatory isnād was not yet being raised, and, as a correlative, 96 that the taking of a special habit (khirqa, shuhra bi libās) was no more than a voluntary act of certain individuals. The institution of collective hermitages, as at Abbādān, and the writing of manuals for the communal life, came long before the solemn affiliation of orders and the ritual wearing of habits.

In the fourth/tenth century, Ja^cfar Khuldī gave⁹⁷ the first known initiatory isnād, a sort of written sama^c. He declared that the tābi^cūn (among others Anas ibn Mālik, d. 91), through Ḥasan Baṣrī (d. 110), Farqad Sinjī (d. 131), Ma^crūf (d. 200), and Sarī (d. 253), had transmitted the mystical doctrine to Junayd (d. 298), Khuldī's teacher.

Shortly thereafter, Daqqāq gave Qushayrī⁹⁸ the following genealogy for what he more explicitly called his "akhdh al-ṭañq" (initiation): (1) the tābi^cūn, (2) Dāwūd Ṭā⁵ī, (3) Ma^cruf, (4) Sarī, (5) Junayd, (6) Shiblī, (7) Naṣrābādhī.

In the following century, at the time of the foundation of the great orders, this chain was prettified, as ludicrous details were added to the rare, confirmed facts about the orders' origins. Here is the chain in its traditional form: ⁹⁹ (1) ^cAlī, (2) Ḥasan Baṣrī, (3) Ḥabīb ^cAjamī, (4) Dāwād Ṭā⁻ī, (5) Ma^crūf, (6) Sarī, (7) Junayd, (8) Abū ^cAlī Rūdhbārī (d. 322), (9) either Abū ^cAlī Kātib (d. 340) or Zajjājī, (d. 348), (10) Abū ^cUthmān Maghribī (d. 373), (11) Abū'l-Qāsim Gurgānī (d. 469). ¹⁰⁰

This isnād of the khirqa was soon criticized. Step 1-2 is false: Hasan and Alī never met 101 (Ibn Diḥya, Ibn al-Ṣalāh, Dhahabī). Step 3-4 is false: Ha-

^{96.} Muḥāsibi, Masā³il, 237-44. 97. Fihrist, 183. 98. Qush., Risāla, 158; the same, ed. Anṣārī, 111, 245; IV, 36. 99. ^cAli Burhānī, Zahra, in fine; Ibn abī Uṣaybi^ca, ^cUyūn, 11, 250. 100. Cf. rem. of Jāmī, 347. 101. This work, ch. 4, sec. 3.

bīb died in Baṣra, Dāwūd lived in Kūfa (Dhahabī). 102 Step 4-5 is false: Macrūf never went to Kūfa (Dhahabī). 103 Step 5-6 is dubious: Sarī was only the indirect disciple of Macrūf. 104

A second isnād, otherwise identical to the first, replaces steps 1-4 by the line of 'Alid Imāms up to 'Alī Ridā (b. 183, d. 203 at Ṭūs), who is supposed to have taken Ma^crūf (d. 200) as his doorman (after Ma^crūf's conversion) and to have clothed him in his own khirqa. Ibn al-Jawzī (in his Fadā 'il Ma^crūf') and Dhahabī point out the chronological impossibilities of this ridiculous legend, which Qushayrī accepts. 105

Two sorts of falsification that the later mystics frequently committed may be included here. One is to put certain sayings and poems under the isnād of a respected name, in order to avoid censure by the theologians. 106 The list of examples includes the tafsīr attributed to Imām Jacfar (from the fourth/tenth century—see below); the khuṭab that Tabarsī attributes to cAlī, which perhaps are by the Imāmī Mufadḍal; the false Dīwān of cAlī, which contains pieces by Suhrawardī of Aleppo; 107 "letters," lightly accepted as authentic by Mehren, from Ibn Abi'l Khayr 108 to Ibn Sīnā, and from Ibn Sabcīn to Frederick II. The authenticity of Ibn cArabī's letters to Fakhr Rāzī is also problematic. 109

The other falsehood is to treat the most compromising works of daring mystics as apocrypha. Sha^crāwī, for example, declared without any supporting evidence that the Fuṣūṣ were not by Ibn ^cArabī.¹¹⁰ Nabhānī has recently tried to reject Nābulusī's authorship of the Ghāyat al-maṭlūb.¹¹¹

The importance of these critical corrections must not be exaggerated. They remove an awkward overlay of arbitrary details, but they hardly change the curve of the historical development of mystical ideas, as the tradition represents them. The Muslim mystics themselves were not embarrassed to confess their uncertainty as to the intermediaries from whom they

- 102. This work, ch. 4, sec. 2.
- 103. In reality Macruf was the disciple of Bakr ibn Khunays, disciple of Bunani.
- 104. This work, ch. 4, sec. 6.
- 105. Qush., I, 82-83. Cf. the supposed interviews of Junayd with Ibn Kullab and with Abū'l-Qāsim Ka^cbi (Ibn al-Najjār; Subki; Yāfi^ci, Nashr, II, 377); the legend of Aḥmad Sibti, brother of Hārūn (Futūḥār, I, 668); the legend of the ahl al-suffa.
 - 106. Jili's Cayniyya, attributed to Kilani.
- 107. E.g., the Dawäka fika (Turkumāni, Luma^c; Nābulusi, Kashf al-sim al-ghāmid); imitated in Turkish by Niyāzi: "Detmān arārdam" (first shīniyya).
- 108. Traités mystiques, 1891, III, sec. 3; cf. Goldziher, Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., ch. 4, 153 n 120; and his apocryphal quatrain against the madrasas (though he had had the Nizāmiyya created), in which the Qalandars are named, though their order was founded in the thirteenth century. Langlès, followed by Dozy and Salmon, put Ibn abi'l-Khayr two hundred years before his real dates.
- 109. Goldziher, Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., IV, 153-54 n 124. Margoliouth accepted (Early Development, 186-98) the authenticity of Nafzī's Mawāqif, reproduced and presented by Ibn 'Arabī and 'Aflf Tilimsānī as if they were of the fourth century; I cannot agree with him.
 - 110. In Shactawi, Lata if, 11, 29.
 - 111. Preface to the Mada ili.

might have received the khirqa. The idea of an uninterrupted chain is quite foreign to Qur²ānic occasionalism, and the mystics accepted it only in order to answer traditionist objections. Perhaps it was infiltrated into their midst, as it was into the other guilds, by the ^cAlid propaganda of the Qarmathians. In the table, which seems to be of Faṭimid origin, of the XVII patrons of the major organizations, there are several mystics: Dhū'l-Nūn Miṣrī (V), Hasan Baṣrī (VII), Abū Dharr (XIII), Abū'l-Dardā (XIV).

Many mystics, finding it repugnant to use justifications as artificial as these isnād, say boldly that they have received their khirqa from al-Khiḍr (or Khaḍir). The real meaning of this pretense is transparent. "Al-Khiḍr" is the traditional name of the anonymous figure shown, in the Qur-an, to be the recipient and keeper of the ilm ladunnī, a saint of God, and, as the guide given the responsibility to direct Moses (Qur-an 18:64-81), superior to the prophets. The mystic initiated by al-Khiḍr is sanctified, emancipated from the tutelage of prophetic law. It is an axiom of Sufism that al-Khiḍr is immortal, is because he is the supreme spiritual counselor who dictates the formulas of prayer to the heart. According to Simnānī, is complete name is Abū'l-Abbās Balyān ibn Qalyān ibn Fāligh al-Khiḍr.

The khirqa khiqriyya proves that the certified transmission of mystical initiation by isnād was only an ancillary argument, for external use. However, the Muslim mystics do not deny that at any given instant there is a precise

- 112. See Goldziher's introduction to Sijistānī's Kitāb al-mu^cammarīn; see also Kutub al-futuuwa, for example, the one by ^cUbaydallāh Rifa^ci (1082 A.H.: Damascus manuscript Zah. taş. 81).
- 113. Book by Shacrawi (Khidriyya, p. 13) devoted to those in contact with Khidr: Ibn Adham, Mişrî, Bistamî, Jurayrî, Tirmidhî, Kîlanî, İbn Arabi, Shadhilî. Cf. Khatk., 213a, Attar II, 92-94; Hazm IV, t80. Khadir = "Elianic Spirit" (n.b., Khidr is a vocalization to be rejected). The Islamic solution to the problem of "spiritual guidance" is provided from the eschatological point of view represented by Elias (Khadir is St. Elias of the Carmel) in all of Christian tradition. Much research has convinced me of the basic eschatological importance of the Qur²an's sura 18, devoted to the Seven Sleepers of Ephesus, for understanding not only the psychology of the Prophet but also the social evolution of the generations of Muslims, during the thirteen centuries in which that sura has been read, every Friday, in every mosque. The sura's second part is a treatment of this problem of spiritual guidance (irshād) and of the priority of the spiritual guide (here Khadir, i.e., Elias: the spirit of Elias, as with St. John the Baptist) over the prophet legislator (here Moses). Cf. in Analetta Bollandiana, 1950, II, 245-60: "Les Sept Dormants, apocalypse de l'Islam"; and, in Les mardis de Dat el Salām, Cairo, 1952, II, "Les fouilles archéologiques d'Ephèse et leur importance religieuse pour la Chrétienté et l'Islam," 1-24. On Khadir, cf. the Isāba; Nucmān-b-Must. Köprülüzadeh, Al-cadl fi hāl al-Khadir, (ms. Köpr. [3] 145); Kamalpashazadeh, Kashf al-hadir fi aunt al-Khadir, Hakimoghli ms., 937. Cf. Hallaj on the sins in Ya Sin and in Mūsa (Akhbār, 28). The problem of the Abdāl is tied to that of Khadir. On the liadith al-abdal, consult the sources indicated above, s.v. BDL (and Khatib II, 182).
 - 114. Remark of Rabāḥ Qaysi (Sh. jab. I, 46).
- 115. Passion, Fr 2:347/Eng 2:330. Allusion to Ibn al-Jawzi's book against this belief (^cAjālat al-munṭazir ft ḥāl al-Khadīr, cited in Ibn ^cAṭā Allah, Laṭā²if, I, 87).
 - 116. A. Ibrāhīm Taymī (Makki, Qit, I, 7). Ibrāhīm Khawwās (Qush. III, 53; cf. I, 71, IV, 173).
 - 117. Apud Unva, extract in Abulfazi, Ayin-i-akbari, trans. Jarrett, III, 176.
- 118. He "renews his youth" every 120 years in 240, 120, 1 A.H., 120, 240, 360...). He incessantly travels the world and was therefore nicknamed, among Christians in the Middle Ages, the "Tervagant" (hypothesis of J. Ribera). He likes the rags and practices alchemy. See Vollers's work.

hierarchy of the sanctifying graces, which the divine omnipotence dispenses in various places on the earth, while insuring that the number of recipients of grace remains constantly fixed. This is the famous theme of the abdāl, the apotropaic saints, who succeed one another by permutation (badal) and constitute the spiritual pillars without which the world would collapse.* In Islam, the doctrine is older than it is generally believed; in spite of what Ibn Khaldūn¹²⁰ says, it is not necessarily of Imāmī origin. By the fourth/tenth century it was already traditional, was accepted by the Sālimiyya and the Ḥanbalites, and had assumed a great variety of forms differentiated by their complex, previous elaboration. It was mentioned explicitly as early as the third/ninth century, in connection with the hadīth al-ghibta (taught by Ḥasan Baṣrī, Yazīd Raqqāshī, Ibn Adham, and Wakī^c), the Abrahamic khulla, and the "three fundamental virtues." 124

In the doctrine's oldest form, there were "forty" abdāl, "forty" being the traditional Semitic number that designates penitence and expiation. Three hundred nuqabā and seventy nujabā were subsequently put under the authority of these abdāl, and seven umanā (var.: abrār, awtād, akhyār), four or three camud (var.: athāfi), and one quṭb, (ghawth) over them; the geographical distribution and administrative roles of the figures vary with each author. These concepts represent a work of the mind parallel to those performed by the Nuṣayrīs (on the four arkān) and Qarmathians. Maghribi's remark that the head of the hierarchy knows his subordinates, "but they do not know him," refers to a Masonic principle that is applied, it must be admitted, in Ismaili secret societies; it remains unproved that thematic borrowing occurred.

^{*}See Massignon, "The Notion of 'Real Elite' in Sociology and in History." For reference, see "Reniark," ch. 1.

^{119.} Among the Druze, this idea became the idea of the invariable number of souls (immediate compensation for the deaths by births, with immediate reincarnation of souls).

^{120.} Muqaddima, de Slane trans., s.v.

^{121.} Passion, Fr 3; 221-22/Eng 3:209-10; Muḥāsibī, Masā²il, f. 233; Maḥabba, f. 6; Tirmidhī, Rasā²il, f. 180, 319; Junayd, ap. Kal. 54; Suyūṭī, Khabar dāli, in Machriq, XII, 194 ff. (article in bib., s.n. Anastase.)

^{122.} Ibn abi'l-Dunyā specifies the "Abrahamic" moral virtues of the forty abdāl; they surpass others, not by their number of prayers, fasts, mortifications, or model behavior, but by the sincerity of their continence, good will, heart's peace, and fraternal advice to all Muslims "ibtighā'a mardāt Allah" (Suyūṭī, Khabar dāll, in Machriq, XII, 204. Ibn abi'l-Dunyā, in his Kitāb al-sakhā [Anastase p. 201], gives a shorter recension of the text, as a hadīth of Ḥasan, through Ṣāliḥ Murrī). Ma'rūf, Dārānī, Nibājī, and Bishr Ḥāfì tried to define the abdāl (Anastase, 200-204).

^{123.} Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206.

^{124.} Suyūtī, op. cit., XII, 204 (Sulami); cf. Passion, Fr 3:31, 44/Eng 3:24, 36.

^{125.} See the Old and New Testaments, s.n.; Qur³ān, s.n. arba^cin; the "forty martyrs" in eastern toponymy.

^{126.} See various theories: Kattānī's (d. 322) in Sh. Tab., I, 110; Abū ^cUthmān Maghribī's (d. 373), in Tahānuwī, Kashshāf, 846; Makki's, in the Qīt, I, 109, II, 78; Tirmidhī's in Baqli, I, 501. Cf. Jāmī, 21. The assembly of universal intercessor saints (hadra) is now thought to be composed of Kilānī, Badawī, and Dasūqī, with Rifā'ci as president.

We know that the saints particularly venerated by Ibn Adham were Mālik ibn Dīnār, Bunānī, and Sikhtiyānī; by Bishr Ḥāfī: Wuhayb ibn al-Ward, Ibn Adham, Ibn Asbāţ, and Muslim Khawwāṣ. 127 According to the Makkī, 128 the Sālimiyya venerated Ibn Adham and Shaqīq, Miṣrī, Bisṭāmī, and Tustarī.

^{127.} Tagr. I, 413. 128. Qiit, II, 76 (s.v. khulla).

THE FIRST MYSTICAL VOCATIONS IN ISLAM

INTRODUCTION

It is clear from the preceding chapters that a study of the lives of the first Muslims called to mysticism is of primary importance to anyone wishing to analyze the formation of Sufism's technical language. The historian of the arts need not exhaust himself over artists' biographies in order to study and appreciate the fabric of a popular song of even the technique of a classical work. Nor is he obliged to enquire whether Layla was as beautiful as Majnūn says she was, whether the painter of the Embarkation for Cythera had visited Cerigo, or whether Abū Nuwās really liked to take part in the licentious scenes described in his poetry. The basic question will not have been decided; the work's intrinsic value will not suddenly have come to light. The same is true in the study of science and philosophy, even legal, moral, and political philosophy; the historian can give an appraisal of the range and economy of a system without detailing the intentions that directed its maker's behavior. The arts and sciences touch man accidentally; they graze our surface.

Mysticism is not the same. It is an experimental science, a method of introspection; it aims by definition at reality itself, at the very heart of man, the intention under the intonation, the smile under the mask. Behind a person's conduct it seeks a grace that comes only from God. Therefore, an appraisal of each subject's degree of sincerity, an examination that makes every conscience transparent, is basic to the study of mysticism. To proceed we must be able to rely on a detailed inquiry into the lives and extant works of those who claim to teach it. Chapters four and five outline an investigation of the distinctive figures of Islamic mysticism at its beginnings.

1. Qur'anic Foundations

A. The Qur²anic Parables and the Problem of Muhammad's Inner Life

If Christianity is fundamentally' the acceptance and imitation of Christ

1. Except among the historical Ebionites and the Sabbatarians of today.

before the acceptance of the Bible, Islam on the contrary is the acceptance of the Qur² an before the imitation of Muḥammad, as the Prophet himself explicitly declared. He insistently taught the verses² emphasizing the strict dependence (and inferiority) of his person in relation to his mandate.³

We must therefore examine whether the Quroan itself suggests themes for mystical meditation before arguing whether Muḥammad had an inner life leaning towards mysticism.

Europeans unfamiliar with Semitic concision, with the brief lightning flashes of the Psalms⁴ for example, communally suppose that the Qur²ān has no mystical tendencies; in other words, that there are no passages meant to be taken in an anagogic (muṭṭala^c) sense.⁵ But many allegorical passages,⁶ contained in various suras both Meccan and Medinese, will be perceived, if we reflect even a little attentively (a fonior if a believer meditates), to be more than simple anecdotes offered to the imagination, verifiable definitions presented to the intelligence, or legal and moral injunctions against our desires. Such verses (āyāt) are condensed but expressive parables containing an cibra, an "admonition." One must consent to accept them before they will be understood; as a result, their vehemence proves repellent to the haughty and pharisaic minds of the fuqahā. Purely legal commentators, in general, also neglect them. E.g.:

Parables of Vocations: "There is a true reminder for him who has a heart for it, and who knows how to pay attention!" (50:37). Build in the heart an edifice "founded on duty to God, not on a piece of earth, which will collapse" (9:109). Life in this world is like running water, like the harvest set out to dry (6:99: 10:25; 13:43; 57:19). At the ritual sacrifice in the pilgrimage, "it is not the blood or flesh of the victims, but piety, that rises to God" (22:38). "A pardoning affectionate word is worth more than alms that cause a wound" (2:265).

Separating the good from the wicked: The different fates reserved for sincere hearts and deceitful ones (2:263, 266, 267, 268; 68:17), for those who rely on God for support and those who count on themselves (39:30; 18:31-40): the first are like sprouting seeds (48:29), like kernels that bear fruit (2:263), like growing trees (14:29); the second are like the deaf and

^{2.} Qur. 28:86; 7:188; 3:138; 6:107; 41:5; 47:21; 72:21, 24.

^{3.} Whence the legitimate inductions of the Wahhabis in their reform of the salāt salā l-Nabī, and of the mystics, who expect saintliness alone to bring about a perfect accomplishment of the law announced by the prophets (tafḍīi al-walī).

^{4.} Qanādīlu rulībān ... fi manāzili'l-quffāl.

^{5.} Passion, Fr 3:187-88/Eng 3:175.

^{6.} With Ibn Abbas, Qur. 13:28 is allegorized as follows: "Water is knowledge, and the streams are men's hearts" (Awārif, I, 61); cf. Hasan on sura 102, and a literalist like Ibn Hanbal on the anagogic sense of names such as Kawthar, Tūbā, Kāfūr.

^{7.} See his role in Muhāsibi (Ricaya, f. 4b).

^{8.} Goldziher, Varlesungen, Eng. trans., 18-19; and the whole verse Qut. 2:172.

dumb, like captives, like lost men groping to find their way by flashes of lightning (2:117-119) or following a mirage; like swimmers awash in a dark sea (24:39-40) or travelers bitten by an icy wind (3:113); their house is as fragile as a cobweb (29:40). At the last day, these souls, empty of good actions, will call after the first group in vain, like the mad virgins crying after the good virgins, "Wait for us, that we may borrow from your light!" (57:13). Sura 36 mentions not only the sadness of the martyred apostle who thinks of the hardening of his executioners (verse 24) but also the painful censure God reserves for some (yā hasratan, 36:29; 3:150, 8:36; 19:40; 69:50; 39:57) and the greeting He addresses (qawlan) to others (36:58).

And the parables of the resurrection: God, who gives life to sterile earth with water (16:67; 41:39) and produces fire from green wood¹² (36:80), will be able to bring souls back to their bodies like tamed birds¹³ (2:262). These parables, with guiding intentions independent from, but parallel to, those of certain psalms and verses of the gospel, are meant for everyone; for the most part, they are ascetic rather than mystical advice.

But there is more in the Qur³ān. There are mentions of clearly illuminative and even ecstatic phenomena: (a) God exposes Muḥammad's secret thoughts as He sounds the Prophet's heart.¹⁴ (This examination of conscience is admittedly involuntary, but it is accompanied by an undeniable mental doubling, in which the spiritual personality of the subject admits that there is another, sovereign Presence [93:6–10; 33:37; 80:3].) (b) The hidden circustances¹⁵ and unknown supernatural significance of certain events are suddenly revealed to the soul.¹⁶ (c) Mention is explicitly made of the inner miracles effected by the grace that comes to certain prophets: speech within (iqrā); sharh al-ṣadr or expansion of the chest; external prun-

- 9. Subject of one of the sermons of Mansur ibn Ammar (d. 225; Filnist, 184).
- 10. Question raised by TabarsI, 122.
- 11. Question raised by Muhasibi (Passion, Fr 3:178/Eng 3:166; herein ch. 3, sec. I. B.).
- 12. Allusion to the Burning Bush.
- 11. Cf. Hallaj (Tawāsin, p. 27).
- 14. Qur. 33:37 (cf. Passion, Fr 3:199 n 8/Eng 3:187 n 15).

16. Description of Satan's fall; description of the rivalry of the Angels desiring to serve Mary in the Temple; words of the Annunciation; contestations of Abraham and Noah with God; discussion between Moses and his guide.

^{15.} Cf. the strange meditations of the first mystics on the "mortal trouble" of Mary before the birth of Jesus (Qur. 19:23): "yā laytanī mittu qabla hadhā!" [Recueil, p. 55] "O, would that I had died before that!": before they sinned by wrongfully suspecting me (Ibn 'Aṭā); before I had to think of someone (= my child) other than God (Kharrāz); before I had to ask for something (= dates), instead of remaining (as before) abandoned to God (Ibn Ṭāhir); before they worshipped my son, separate from God (Jurayri; cf. Baqli, II, 8; Sh. Tab., I, 93). And Wāṣiṭi's commentary on the barten date palm that gave Mary fresh dates (Qur. 19:25): he says it is an image of the pure conception of Jesus within her, a pure gift of God (rizq), not an advantage (that she was seeking, haraka) or something acquired (kash, with respect to which she would have been avaricious) (Baqlī, II, 8).

ing of the heart, 17 which is circumcised by faith. Finally, (d) there are cases of rapture, such as the central event in Muhammad's vocation, the night journey (isrā) to Jerusalem, and to the qāb qawsayn.

I have shown elsewhere 18 how the greatest Muslim mystics concentrated their Qur anic meditation on these themes, as they tried to find in their own hearts the states of the soul that had been the favors of grace to some of the prophets.

Nothing more can be affirmed. The Qurain raises the question of purifying (ikhlās) the profession of monotheistic faith, and that of habitually conforming to the will of God (tuma²nīna, ridā, state of grace); we can therefore say that the Quran mentions certain mystical phenomena but does not explain their occurrence in history. 19 In particular it supplies no decisive documentary evidence on the evolution of Muhammad's inner life (as proved by Hubert Grimme's failed attempt).20 The secret of his soul, which was devoted to such an extraordinary destiny, has remained sealed to us.21 Sura 53 contains no cries of mystical love, and we cannot easily adopt Ghazālī's hypothesis that Muḥammad was at first a "passionate lover of his God," wandering in solitude on Mt. Hirā and drunk with desire for union.22 But we must not, like the many orientalists led astray by the fugahā's partisan reasoning, deny the sincere and lasting vehemence of Muhammad's devotion, indicated by his severe discipline and frequent supererogatory prayers after midnight (tahajjud). Like all true leaders, he was hard on himself, and sometimes even on his harem. Goldziher and Lammens have recently brought to light some traditional tales of the luxury of his "court," of his and his Companions' softness; the stories are picturesque, but they first appeared as highly suspect polemical arguments, used and probably invented by the shameful second-century A.H. school of muḥaddithūn most notably represented by Wāqidī (d. 207) and his "secretary" Ibn Sacd (d. 230). These men were exclusively occupied in seeking apostolic precedents for licentious sumptuousness, especially the silks, jewels, henna, antimony, and perfume of the profligate governors and vizirs on whose subventions the school survived.23 Hatim al-Asamm gave an early warning about them to the qādī Ibn Muqātil of Rayy.24 Muḥāsibī's vibrant

^{17.} Passion, Fr 3:19-20/Eng 3:12-13; Ghazăli, Munqidh, 7; cf. Qur. 5:10-11.

^{18.} Passion, Ft. 3:213 ff., 312/Eng 3:200 ff., 294-95.

^{19.} Passion, Fr 3:39/Eng 3:31.

^{20.} Goldziher (Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., 80-81) thinks his attempt might help to reconstitute the chronological order of the suras. — Only if we begin with the axiom that predestination and freedom are contradictory, against which all the religious experience of believers protests.

^{21.} Passion, Fr 3: 199 n 7, 315, 320/Eng 3: 187 n 14, 297-98, 302-3.

^{22.} Ghazāli, Mungidh, 33.

^{23.} Wāqidi was a commensal of the Barmakids. See Goldziher's discussion of Ibn Sa^cd, in Vorlesungen, Eng. trans., 125-26 n 30.

^{24.} Yafici, Nashr.

pages stigmatize²⁵ the unspeakable motives in their hearts, which were devoted to the flesh. A profane desertion of all that is sacred lurked beneath their specious historical criticism of the supposed poverty of Islam's first champions. That poverty was real, in fact was inevitable ²⁶ among fighters as hardened as them, condemned to forty years of ceaseless skirmishing and extended military expeditions.

The diversity alone of the Muslim mystics' reflections on Muhammad's inner life shows how mysterious the problem has remained. What the Prophet's public life attests should be noted: proven will, self-control,²⁷ moderation and prudence, perspicacity and readiness to forgive, patience and forethoughtfulness, in short all the capacity to maneuver of a chief in war and a chief of state.²⁸ His abilities were disciplined by the deepest faith, but we must not claim without proof, like certain neo-Muslims of India, that his faith was combined with personal practice, on a heroic scale, of the Sermon on the Mount.²⁹ On the other hand, the Qur²ān mentions that ideal of saintly Christian mildness and does not find fault with it.

B. Is the Monastic Vocation to Be Rejected? The Hadīth of Lā Rahbāniyya

The Qur³ān, while condemning some erroneous Christian opinions, clearly states that among those monks "who are humble" (5:85) are to be found the Muslim believers' closest friends. On the other hand, those monks "who consume another's goods, and those who hoard wealth" will be condemned to hell (9:34). It is not monasticism that is condemned a priori but only bad monks. Nothing in the Qur³ān limits the legality of the monastic life to Jews and Christians; certainly nothing allows bad Muslims to escape the damnation pronounced for thieves and misers. An opinion to this effect was declared in public by Abū Dharr, during "Uthmān's caliphate, 31 and no matter how flagrant the doctrinal hypocrisy under certain Umayyads may have been, all ancient commentators on the Qur³ān adopted

^{25.} Herein ch. 5, sec. 1.

^{26.} Cf. the "luxury" of Napoleon's marshals on campaign.

^{27.} Hypotheses of epilepsy, self-hypnosis, or a hyperexcited imagination have been worked out by sedentary psychiatrists who know nothing of life in desert camps and the positive ingenuity that must be marshaled in a band of bedouin, simply to remain its leader.

^{28.} But it has been said gratuitously that he demonstrated the adroitness of a legislator in the "dosage" of his Qur³anic prescriptions; the accusers miss the fundamental point that Muhammad did not make the Qur³an.

^{29.} On this subject, for modern alterations to the school of Ameer Ali, who was too impressed by Protestant missionary attacks (Pfander), see the rough, but more honest, portrait of Muhanmad by Kamāl-al-Din (Islamic Review of Woking, 1917, p. 9-17).

^{10.} Moreover, the opinion is common in pre-Islamic Atab literature.

^{31.} Herein p. 109.

it. Muqātil (d. 150), giving rules for Qur³ānic exegisis, says that, "Every time you read the word ruhbān in the Qur³ān, you must understand it to mean al-mujtahidīn fī dīnihim, the believers who make an effort to practice their religion with zeal."³² Many pious figures are called rāhib without any pejorative intent.³³

Western orientalism also makes much of a hadīth, "la rahbāniyyata fī'l-Islām" ("No monasticism in Islam"), in order to prove that rahbāniyya was censured by the Qur'ān and forbidden by Muḥammad, and therefore that Sufism was a foreign import. I shall briefly examine the origin of this hadīth; no competent Islamologist has offered a strict defense of its authenticity, and it seems to have come into use later than the second century, since the Imānī attacks do not mention it.³⁴

The statement, "No manasticism...," to which Sprenger, 35 following Harīrī, 36 has given so much notoriety, first appears in Ibn Sa^Cd's writings 37 about the ascetic ^CUthmān ibn Maz^Cūn Jumaḥī. 38 Abū Dāwūd (d. 275) changes it to "No celibacy..." ("lā ṣarūra...") 39 in order to corroborate his posthumous attacks against Rabāḥ and Rābi^Ca and his new exegesis of Qur. 57:27 ("rahbāniyya, which was not prescribed for them").

The attenuated variant of the hadīth, "Monastic life for my Community is holy war (jihād),"40 seems to have appeared even later.41 How, exactly, is nahbāniyya defined for writers of Arabic?42 It is life in a hermitage (saum a)43 and a vow (nadhr) to abstain from sexual relations. It may include even "abstention from eating meat, and forty-day retreats,"44 as well as wearing a hair shirt (musūḥ). Lexicographers hostile to asceticism define rahbāniyya45

- 32. Malati, 122. In fact, tarahhub = ta abbud in all dictionaries.
- 33. Abū Bakr Makhzūmi, "rāhib Quraysh" (d. 94; Goldziher); 'Ammār ibn al-Rāhib (Ibn 'Arabi, Muḥāḍarāt [Muḥaḍ.], II, 62); Dārimī (d. 243), "rāhib al-Kūṭa"; cf. Murdār, "rāhib al-mu^cta-zila." Qiss, on the other hand, was pejorative (see below, sec. 3. C, n 296 and related text).
 - 34. Khūnsāri, Rawdāt, II, 233.
 - 35. Mohammad, I. 389.
- 36. Maqām, XLIII; Sacy, in a note, reproduces only the hadith of cAkkāf Hilāli, where the word in question does not figure (ed. 1822, 497); cf. Ibn al-Athir, Usd, 1V, 3.
- 37. Tabaqāt, ms. Sprenger, f. 258 = vol. 11I, part 1, p. 287. The classical form is given by Zamakhshari (Fā²iq, Haydarābād, 1324, I, 269) and lbn al-Athir (Nihāya, Cairo, 1311, II, 113). [—Snouck.]
- 38. Died in the year 2. The Prophet is supposed to have said it to him before the Hijra, in Abyssinia (sic! Muir, Life, 1858, II, 107 n).
 - 39. Sunan, I, 173; II, 195. Cf. Goldziher, M. St., II, 395; and RHR, XVIII, 180; XXXVII, 314 ff.
 - 40. Tholuck, Ssuf., 46.
- 41. Wensinck sees fit to bring to my attention three parallel hadith, in Muslim (ch. imāra, no. 122), Tirmidhī (ch. faḍā²il al-jihād, no. 17), and Dārimī (ch. jihād, no. 6), which conclude with a condemnation of the believer who abstains from going to war and makes a voluntary retreat (i^ctizāl). This word seems to me to refer to the political abstentionists of the years 657-61, not to ascetics.
 - 42. See also Ibn Sab In's work cited by Maggart (Anal., I, 594).
 - 43. Zamakhshari.
 - 44. Bagli.
 - 45. Firūzābādhi, Qāmūs; cf. Lisān al-Arab.

as "making oneself a eunuch (ikhtiṣā)"⁴⁶ and "voluntarily binding oneself with chains (i^ctināq bi'l-salāsil)."⁴⁷ In reality, the Arab monastic life is based on vows of chastity ⁴⁸ and seclusion: it is the eremetic life. Islam is so little opposed to it that a temporary vow of chastity ⁴⁹ is imposed on pilgrims during their stay on sacred ground in Mecca. ⁵⁰ All the orthodox schools of jurisprudence allow the i^ctikāf, "pious retreat." Their manuals treat the aforementioned types of vow under the heading nudhūr ("vows"). The word rahbāniyya was at first sufficiently free of suspicion to have been used as the name of one of the three styles of Qur³ānic chant (alḥān al-qirā³a): ghinā, hidā, rahbāniyya. ⁵¹

The decisive reason for the word's acceptance was that it figures, with all its letters, in a celebrated Qur²anic verse (57:27), unanimously interpreted by the exegetes of the first three centuries A.H. as giving permission and praise. A tendentious interpretation, too easily accepted by contemporary orientalists, made the verse into a confirmation of the pejorative, restrictive hadīth quoted above. The verse must be examined closely. Here is a literal translation of it:

Then...Jesus, son of Mary; and We gave him the gospel, and in the hearts of

46. Cf. two Christian heretics of the East: Sabas the Massalian and the Arab Valesius. I think in this case there was not mutilation but only perforation: the tathqib al-ihlil of the Qalandariyya, with infibulation by a chain (silsila). The name of this latter group, "calendars," appears in Attar, Suhrawardi Baghdādī ('Awārif), and Naim ibn Isra'il ("mulhaqīn"). The order was founded by Jamāl Muhammad ibn Yūnus Sāwiji (of Sāva) at Damascus (Qanawāt) in 616 A.H. After Sāwiji's death at Damietta (630), Jamal Derguzini succeeded him, then Muhammad Balkhi. They were persecuted (cf. Sauvaire, JAP, 1895, I, 378, 409). Ibn Khaldun cites the prophecies of one of them, Bājirqī. Another Qalandar, Bahā Zak. Multānī, had disciples including the poet Fakhr ^cIrāqī (who went to India, d. Damascus 699 A.H.) and Fakhr al-Sa^cādāt Husayn Ghawtī, author of the Qalandamāma, and Hasan Jawāliqī, founder of the Khāngāh Siniyāgūs (NE of Cairo) c. 722 A.H. (a line of shaykh al-shuyūkh). Other khānqāhs, called Qalandarkhānas were founded in Istanbul, in Baghdad (in 762 A.H. according to Azzawi; this one became a tekke of the Mevlevis in 1017 A.H.), and in Jerusalem (at Birkat Mamilla in 793 A.H.; cf. Revue des Etudes Islamiques, 1952, 89)-The salsabil of Sanusi contains the dhikr of the Qalandariyya of today (which is a sort of "sign of the cross" evoking the "Five of the Mantle"). They are Mukhammisa, extremist Nuşayri Shiites, who took refuge in northeast Baluchistan near the Khyber Pass (according to Ghalib Amīn Țawil of Latakia, and confirmed by Ansari at Agra, June 1945; also Abdulbaki, Qaygusuz, 163-65)-

47. One of the oldest features of Arab asceticism: Goldziher, M. St., II, 395; Ibn Wasic and Utba; Hallaj (Passion, Fr 1:524/Eng 1:477).

49. Cf. the cuzzāb of the first century; and among the Ibādites.

^{48.} I have studied the problem of the vow of chastity in Islam in Etudes cannélitaines ("Mystique et continence"), Paris, 1952. The only Muslim order to make a permanent public vow of chastity was the Qalandariyya, who are very late (our thirteenth century); the master infibulated the novice with a small iron chain (tawq) as the quft of his chastity. On the ideal of virginity, cf. Hallat (asrānunā Bikrum: Stf 159, 191).

^{50.} Considering the antiquity of the *liajj* as a mystical symbol, I am willing to see in the Muslim vow of chastity an extension of the pilgrims' temporary vow, and in the special costume an extension of the *ilyām*, which implies chastity.

^{51.} Ibn Qutayba, Macarif, 265.

those who followed him We placed $(ja^Caln\bar{a})$ (the seeds of) readiness to forgive (ra^2fa) , compassion (rahma), and the monastic life $(rahb\bar{a}niyya)$. It was they who instituted it $(ibtada^C\bar{u}h\bar{a})$; We only prescribed $(katabn\bar{a})$ it for them in order to make them desire 52 to conform to what pleases God, but they have not followed the obligatory method of this rule for living $(r^iC\bar{a}ya)$; to those among them who have remained faithful We have given their recompense, but many among them have been sinners.

The phrase is long, full of nuance, and grammatically impeccable. Its meaning explicitly confirms the Qur³ān's double judgment of monks. Here is a remarkable text, placed by Muḥāsibī at the beginning of his Ri^{c} āya, a book intended precisely to rediscover for believers the "method" $(n^{c}$ āya) that God had willed and the monks had lost:

And each duty God demands of his servants, and each order given especially to some of them — God commands that these be preserved and put into effect. This is the "method that is God's due," which is, intrinsically as in practice, a canonical obligation for us. God finds fault with those among the Israelites⁵³ who instituted a monastic life that He had not made obligatory for them, and then did not observe it exactly; and He said, "We did not prescribe the monastic life that they have instituted."

There is disagreement about this verse. Mujāhid interprets it to mean, "We had only prescribed it for them in order to make them desire to conform to what pleases God, and it was they who (then) instituted it. God placed in them, for their own good, (the seeds of) the monastic life, and He reprimanded them later for having abandoned it." But Abū Imāma (Bāhilī) and others make this commentary: "We did not prescribe it for them, i.e., it is not We who prescribed it; they have instituted it only in order to please God, and nevertheless, God has reprimanded them for abandoning it." And this second opinion is the more likely; it is the one upon which the majority of the Community's doctors agree.

Therefore God said, "They have not followed the method required for this rule of life." If God reprimanded them because they did not follow a rule that He had not even made an obligation or a part of the sacred law, what then will He do to those who abandon obligatory duties, which, if neglected, bring His wrath and the punishment of separation from Him? And he has made piety (taqwä) the key both to the performance of these duties and to all felicity, in this world and the next... 54

^{52.} Insofar as they should desire it; in case they should desire it; this is not a commandment or precept but a piece of advice. Ibtighā a is a semantic correlative of ibtada thā.

^{53.} Disciples of Jesus.

^{54.} Ri aya, f. 3b.

The text is fundamental. It provides the two early opinions of Mujāhid and Abū Imāma, and it shows that in both cases the Qur an praises the rahbāniyya of the Israelites as a pious work, canonical in the first case, supererogatory (taṭawwu^c) in the second.

Muhāsibī gives precedence to Abū Imāma's exegesis of ibtda^cūhā, but Abū Ishāq Zajjāj (d. 310)⁵⁵ puts it in a secondary position: ⁵⁶ "The standard commentary on this subject says that certain believers who could not bear the (impious) conduct of their rulers took refuge in hidden dens or cells and instituted this kind of life. Then, since they had promised themselves to a supererogatory work (taṭawwu^c) and had undertaken it, they were obliged to accomplish it (as in the case of the vow of an extra fast, which must be kept)." But Zajjāj, on his own initiative, suggests another interpretation as the primary one:

Rahbāniyyatan ibtada cūhā is an ellipsis for "they instituted the monastic life, it is they who instituted it," as one says, "I saw Zayd; and cAmr, I greeted him"; mā katabnāha calayhim means, "We absolutely did not prescribe it for them," and hā sh stands for illā ibtighā a riḍwān Allāh, giving the sense, "We had prescribed for them only that they should desire to conform to what is pleasing to God." Ibtighā a riḍwān Allāh here means, "God's Commandment (in His revealed law)."

Zajjāj's second interpretation, which tends to place the monastic life outside of divine providence and strip it of all praise, ⁵⁹ would triumph over the others with assistance from the polemic among theologians about $ja^{c}aln\bar{a}$ and $katabn\bar{a}$. Muqātil had defined the verbs as synonyms, ⁶⁰ and most Murji³ites, like him, taught that both words communicated God's physical premovement of all acts of the heart and body. The Mu^ctazilites also took them as synonyms, but, unlike the Murji³ites, they weakened their meaning. Jubba³i adopted Mujāhid's thesis and had no objection to admitting that $ra^{3}fa$, rahma, and $rahb\bar{a}niyya$ were all governed by $ja^{c}aln\bar{a}$; according to this school, $ja^{c}aln\bar{a}$ = "We have given man the power to create (on his own...)"; ⁶¹ the verb governs the first two objects slightly differently from the third $(rahb\bar{a}niyya)$. The great grammarian Abū ^cAlī Fasawī (d. 377), be-

^{55.} Zajjāj, of dubious finances (Talbīs, 135).

^{56.} Lisān, I, 421-22.

^{57.} I have translated tafsir as "standard commentary."

^{58.} From katabnāhā.

^{59.} Cf. an antimonastic pronouncement attributed to Ibn al-Hanafiyya, though he was the head of the Murji ites (Ibn Sa^cd, Tabaqāt, V, 70).

^{60.} On Qur. 58:22 (in Ibn al-Farrā, Mu^ctamad). Katab = ta^cabbad according to Tustari (152; to constitute as a ritual) = farad according to Muhāsibi and Zamakhshari, Fā²iq (cf. above, n 37).

^{61.} In Zamakhshari, loc, cit.

cause of his prejudice against mysticism, preferred to rally to Zajjāj; "Rahbāniyyatan," he says, "is the object of an understood verb. It is an ellipsis for 'they instituted the monastic life: it is they who instituted it.' Rahbāniyyatan cannot be in apposition to the preceding objects because 'what God has placed in the heart could never be instituted [= introduced, modified] by man." 162

Finally, Zamakhsharī, 63 developing Fasawī's premises by renouncing the postulates of Mu^ctazilism, 64 proposes that ja^calnā = waffaqnā and separates rahbāniyyatan from the group of direct objects. 65 He cuts the passage in two and changes the second half, making four fragments arranged in the order 1, 2, 4, 3: "rahbāniyyatan-ibtada^cūhā-illā ibtighā'a riḍwān Allāh-mā katabnāhā calayhim." By the syntactical figure he calls istithnā munqati^{c66} (an "exception"* severed by an interjection), he obtains the following sense: "As for the monastic life, it is they who instituted it out of desire to please God; We did not make it a canonical duty for them." The monastic life is then a reprehensible innovation that Muslims must prevent themselves from imitating.

Most modern tafsīr, even mystical tafsīr, follow Zamakhsharī; in order to separate rahbāniyyatan from ja^calnā, Ṣāwi⁶⁷ declares, "Mildness and compassion, unlike the monastic life, are not gains that man can acquire (and augment; they are divine attributes)." But the Indian Muhā³imī (d. 710/1310) was still maintaining the old tradition when he gave the reading, "As for rahbāniyyatan, it is We who placed it in their hearts, but they instituted it (too early). Ibtada^cūhā, before it was ordered by a clear revealed text; 'We had prescribed it for them only because it contains within itself the desire to please God,' for it reinforces the practice of canonical duty."⁶⁸

Our lengthy inquiry can be closed by some indirect proofs: in the Qur³ān, the expression ibitghā³a riḍwān Allāh, "from desire to please God," is used constantly as praise,⁶⁹ and the mystics before the fourth century A.H. understood it in that sense. Bishr Ḥāfi (d. 227) used to say, "Do you plan to do this from desire to please God, or for your personal satisfaction?" When Ibn abī'l-Dunyā (d. 281) was speaking of the indirect apos-

^{*} As in Wright's grammar, index, under "exceptive sentences."

^{62.} In Ibn Sida, Mukhassas, XIII, 100; Lisān, 1, 421. This goes directly against the grain of Allass's Mucrazilism (Passion, Ft 3:121/Eng 3:109).

^{63.} Tafsir, III, 165.

^{64.} Though he himself was a semi-Muctazilite.

^{65.} Goldziher finds the pejorative bid a (already) in ibiada ühā of this verse (M. St., II, 23 n 6).

^{66.} Passion, Fr 3:99/Eng 3:88.

^{67.} IV, 138; cf. Baqli, 11, 311.

^{68.} Tafsir ralımanı, 11, 324.

^{69.} Qur. 3:156, 168; 5:2, 18; 48:29.

^{70.} Makki, Qiit, I, 92.

tolate the saints had undertaken among other Muslims, he described inner virtues they exercised "ibtighad mardat Allah."71

Finally, there is the use of rahbāniyya, always as a word of praise, among the mystics of the third century A.H. Burjulānī wrote a Kitāb al-nuhbān, and the cautious Junayd could still say, at the end of his Dawā, "The friends of God... have their eyes perpetually fixed on their prescribed duty as servants, in the monastic life (rahbāniyya). God blamed those who had embraced that life and failed to execute its obligations, thereby neglecting the prescribed method." Anṭākī, in the first chapter of his Dawā, had said even more energetically, "That is the true rahbāniyya, which is not speech but silent action."

C. Some Termini a quo: Sūf, Sūft, Sūftyya

i) the wearing of the Saf as a sign of penitence

Until the third century A.H., the sūf, an undyed rough wool garment, was not so much a regular monastic uniform as the mark of a personal vow of penitence. Muḥāsibī still maintained that singling oneself out in such a manner might conceal pride. It seems that pilgrims to Mecca wore the garment. Ibn Sīrīn (d. 110) is supposed to have criticized some contemporary ascetics who wore it "in order to imitate Jesus": "I prefer to follow the example of the Prophet, who wore cotton (quin). He was speaking of "Utba? and Farqad Sinji (d. 131), Hasan Baṣri's intimate disciple, to whom Hammād ibn Salama (d. 165) said, "Then rid yourself of that christianism!" Ibn Dīnār on the other hand did not consider himself pure enough? to wear the sūf. Thawrī wore it, but Shiite tradition (in a saying attributed to Jacfar) reproaches him for putting it deceitfully over a garment of silk.

Beginning in the third century A.H. the suf of white wool became a known and respected piece of religious clothing, said to have been worn

^{71.} Herein, ch. 3, n 122. Cf. ibiighā a wajh Allāh of Ḥudhayfa (Ḥanbal, V, 191).

^{72.} And when Ibn Qutayba speaks of a false rahbāniyya, "al-rahbāniyya al-mubtada a," it probably means that he envisages a different, true one.

^{73.} Masă il, f. 237-44.

^{74.} Aghāni, 1st ed., XI, 61 (cited by Nöldeke, ZDMG, XLVIII, 46).

^{75.} Hilya: extract ap. Manar, XII, 747.

^{76.} Sh. Tab., I, 46.

^{77.} Ibn Abdrabbihi, Add, I, 177; III, 247.

^{78.} Pun (sāfā).

^{79.} Sh. Tab., I, 36.

^{80.} Khūnsārī, I, 233, 316.

by Moses, they by Muhammad. Mystics avid for penitence preferred the muraqqa^ca, a motley assortment of rags stitched together.⁸¹

II) THE PERSONAL TITLE al-Sufi in the first three centuries

Abū Hāshim ^cUthmān ibn Sharīk Kūfī Ṣūfī, d. at Ramla c. 160/776 (Jāmī, 35). Jābir ibn Ḥayyān Kūfī Ṣ. and his disciple Sa²iḥ ^cAlawī Ṣ.,⁸² alchemists (Fihrist, 354, 359).

Ibrāhīm ibn Bashshār Khurāsānī Ş., disciple of Ibn Adham (Ibn Arabī, Muḥād., II, 346).

Abū Jacfar Qāṣṣ Ṣ., disciple of cAbd al-Ṣamad Raqqāshī (Jāḥiz, Bayān, I, 168). clsā ibn Haytham Ṣ., Muctazilite (Murtadā, Munya, 45).

Abū Hamza M ibn Ibrahīm S., disciple of Muhāsibī, d. 269 (Tagrib, II, 47).

Abū cAA Aḥmad cAbd al-Jabbār Ṣ. (al-Kabîr), student of Muḥāsibī and Ibn Macîn, teacher of Dāwūd; died at the age of 100 in Baghdād in 306 (Samcānī, 357a).

Abū'l-Hasan Ahmad ibn Hurmuz S. (al-Saghīr), d. Baghdād 303 (id.).

Muḥammad ibn Hārūn Ş., teacher of the Shiite Sinānī, who trained Ibn Bābūya (*Ilal).

Abū AA Shīcī Ş., the Qarmathian Dācī in Ifriqiya, d. 297.

111) THE COLLECTIVE NAME Sufiyya BEFORE THE FOURTH CENTURY

Muḥāsibī (d. 243) cites two of the Kūfan Ṣūfiyya, Ibn Qinṭāsh and ʿAbdak, in order to criticize the excessive severity of their doctrine of the makāsib. ⁸³ Jāḥiz (d. 255) gives a list of noteworthy ascetics (nussāk, zuhhād), then a seperate list ⁸⁴ of "Ṣūfiyya": Kilāb, Kulayb, Hāshim Awqāṣ, Abū Hāshim Kūfi, and Ṣāliḥ ibn ʿAbd al-Jalīl. At first, therefore, the collective name designated a certain group among the ascetics of Kūfa. A century later it meant the organized body of mystics in Baghdād (Junayd, Makkī, and Ibn ʿAṭā were part of it; Kharrāz, Tustarī, and Ruwaym claimed not to be). ⁸⁵ In the fourth century, the word spread over all of cIrāq. ⁸⁶

IV) ETYMOLOGY

Each of these terms, sūf, al-Ṣūfī, Ṣūfiyya, seems to have evolved indepen-

^{81.} Passion, Fr 1:143-44/Eng 1:103.

^{82.} See Fihrist, 143, on his other disciple Muḥammad ibn Yaḥyā Munajjim of Sāmarrā, editor of his Kitāb al-raļuna.

^{83.} Makāsib.

^{84.} Bayan, I, 94.

^{85.} Jami, s.n.

^{86.} Kharkushi, Tahdhib, f. 12b.

dent of the others until the fourth century. For the word al-Sufi alone. there is perhaps more than one etymology. Used as the name of a pure ascetic like Abū Hāshim, it is no doubt derived from the "wool" of his cloak. As the name of a chemist like Ibn Hayyan, it suggests the "purification" (sāfā, sūfiyya) of red sulphur. These two etymologies were linked quite early if it is indeed true that Ibn Dinar had already made the pun on "Sufism" and "purity" that would be employed by Tustari⁸⁷ and Sarrāj, ⁸⁸ and then in the famous qasīda on mysticism of the Karrāmī poet Abū'l-Fath Busti. 89 Other, less defensible, 90 etymological sources have been suggested: saff awwal, the first row before God; ahl al-suffa, the "people of the bench" in the mosque in Medina: Banū Sūfa, a bedouin tribe; the Greek word σοφος (sophos - Merx); sūfa and sūfān, employees of the church. Abd al-Oāhir Baghdādī in the eleventh century⁹¹ was able to collect a thousand different definitions of the word "Sufism"; Nicholson, in the twentieth, seventy-eight.92 These curiosities of literature and dogma are irrelevant to the semantic history of the vocable.

V) THE FIRST TRACES OF COLLECTIVE ORGANIZATION 93

mawāciz, moral sermons: Ḥasan Baṣrī and Bilāl Sakūnī.

ḥalqa, a room for pious meetings: Ja^cfar b. Ḥasan Baṣrī,⁹⁴ The first ḥalqa for the samā^c (spiritual concert) was established in Baghdād by Abū ^cAlī Tanūkhī, a friend of Sarī (d. 253).⁹⁵

majlis al-dhikt, hermitage for brief retreats: Ḥasan; 96 CIsä ibn Zādhān at Ubulla, c. 120.97

sāwāmi^c, conical cells (syn. kūkh and duwayrāt), imitated from the Melkites. 98 In about 150, Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd's disciples made the first cluster of these, in a ribāṭ, a monastery with defensive walls, at Abbādān (an Arabo-Persian word meaning "the pious men"). The monastery

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87. Ap. Yāficī, Nashr, II, 341.
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^{88.} Bustant, Dābira, s.v.

^{89.} Biruni, Athar, s.v.

^{90.} Kalābādhi, Tacaruf, ms. Paris Supp. pers., f. 652-69b.

^{91.} Subkī, III, 239.

^{92.} JRAS, 1906, 303-48.

^{93.} The first form of Muslim asceticism was militant; generally, the mystics sequestered themselves only after participating in holy war on the frontier. They took to hermitages that were fortified because near dangerous borders. From Ibn Adham to Shaqiq to Hallaj, mystics were militants.

^{94.} Jahiz, Bayan, I, 195.

^{95.} Tagrib, 11, 25.

^{96.} Qilt, I, 149.

^{97.} Ibn Arabi, Muhad., II, 59.

^{98.} Qallal, in Jahiz, Hayawan, IV, 146.

quickly became famous: Ḥafṣ ibn Ghiyāth (d. 194) mentions it; ⁹⁹ prayers performed there (al-ṣalāt bi ʿAbbādān) were especially valued; ¹⁰⁰ Wakī ^c (d. 197) went there to make a retreat of forty nights; ¹⁰¹ Sahl Tustarī made a visit. ¹⁰² It seems to have been destroyed by the Zinj (260 A.H.). ¹⁰³ matāmir, silos, caves (syn. shikāft in Persian), imitated from the Nestori-

maṭāmir, silos, caves (syn. shikāft in Persian), imitated from the Nestori ans. 104 Kalābādhī speaks of the Shikāftiyya ascetics of Khurāsān. 105

khānqāh, monastery: at Ramla in Palestine about 140: Abū Hāshim, who had come from Kūfa; then perhaps Abū 'Abbād, the teacher of Ibn Adham, and Abū Ja^cfar Qaṣṣāb.¹⁰⁶ In Jerusalem, Ibn Karrām built a monastery about 230.

minbar (kursī): the first chair of Sufi doctrine in the mosques; Yaḥya Rāzī in Cairo (d. 258), and Abū Hamza in Baghdād (d. 269). 107

2. GENERAL PICTURE OF ISLAMIC ASCETICISM IN THE FIRST TWO CENTURIES

A. Among the Ṣaḥāba: Abū Dharr, Ḥudhayfa, ^cImrān Khuzā^cī

We must first dismiss the stories, invented after their time, about the as-

99. Dhahabi, Ictidāl, s.n. "Jacfar ibn Muḥammad."

100. Qit, II, 121.

101. Abbas Düri, ta'rikh, ap. Shibli, Akain, 150.

102. Tafsir, 26.

103. It is amazing indeed that the collective name suffixed should first appear in Alexandria in 199 A.H. (Kindi, 162, 440; Mez, 269) to designate puritans in revolt. Around Abbadan the word designated the mutauwi'a, "civic volunteers" from Basta, who formed groups in the shadow of the hermits' prayers. Not until a century later was there an attack, by the famous Ibn Wahshiyya (pseudonym of the extremist Shiite Ibn al-Zayyāt) in his Filāha Nabtiyya (ms. P., 2803, 22b-23b), against the "Sūfiyya" for their proud, false, and parasitic laziness (Nöldeke sees a bookish borrowing from a Greek text of Eunapios against Christian monks). The hermitage of Abbadan (now an oil refinery) was named after a man called Abbad. The greatest masters went there on retreat: Muqātil ibn Sulaymān (d. 158: Tārīkh Balkh, ms. P. afp. 115, 52a), Ḥammād ibn Salama (d. 167: l^etidāl, I, 278), Bishr Hāfi (Chazāli, Kīmyā, trans. Ritter, 171). Ibn al-Mubārak unitated it at Marv (Naw Ribāt: cf. Sam'). 'Abbādān was the model imitated by Abū Hāshim 'Uthmān ibn Sharīk Kufi at Ramla in Syria (one of the sites suggested for the Qur anic "Rabwa" of Jesus) c. 150 A.H. Ramla (destroyed c. 560 A.H.) was the center for ascetics in Syria (ahl al-shām) and was visited by Sari Saqati, Ibn Khafif (when Rüdhbāri lived there), and Ibn al-Jallā; Wajīhi heard Ibn Fātik there. After Ramla, the Karramiyya founded ribâts at Jerusalem, in Khurasan, and at Dinawar. Then the Kāzarūniyya constructed their great network of pious hostels. In Abbādān, the recitation of the tasbili entailed repeating not the "sublian Allah" but the "hasbi Allah" (counting with pebbles and dates), which made Nazzām indignant (Ibn al-Jawzi, Hunnagā, 106). Sahl Tustarī justified this dhikr as tawakkul (Qur. 9:129; 39:38), declaring that it was the taqallub of the Seven Sleepers (Qush. 90). According to Muqaddasī, the earth at Abbādān was composed of silt from Jerusalem. Hammād ibn Salama, nephew of Hamid Tawil, was considered one of the abdal; via Thabit (of Suhayb) he taught the ziyada (of Paradise) and the vision of God (shabb annad) (Ictidal, s.v.).

^{104.} Qallāl, loc. cit. (above, n 98).

^{105.} Tacarruf, loc. cit. (above, n 90).

^{106.} Blochet, Esotérisme, 245.

^{107.} Qüt, I, 166; Tagrib., II, 25.

ceticism of Bilāl, Abū Hurayra, and the first four caliphs; but some clear cases can still be observed among the Ṣaḥāba. 108 For example, Abū'l-Dardā ^CUwaymir ibn Zayd recommended tafakkur (meditation) and preferred piery (taqwā) to forty years of ritual observance (^Cibāda). He said, "What clearly shows that God despises the world is that only in the world do we offend him, and without renouncing the world we obtain nothing from Him." ¹⁰⁹ Someone consulted his wife, Umm al-Dardā, saying, "There is an incurable pain in my heart, hardness of heart; and hope is too far away"; she replied, "Go among the tombs to see the dead." ¹¹⁰

Abū Dharr Jundub Ghifārī is an even more marked case, celebrated by Sacid ibn Musayyabiii and Thawri. "It is through asceticism that God makes wisdom and goodness enter men's hearts," he said. "Three men are beloved of God: he who returns secretly to give alms to a beggar he has first refused, when the beggar had asked in the name of God alone, not in the name of some kinship; he who prays after a long night march; he who perseveres in combat until he is victorious. God hates three men: a lascivious old man, an insolent poor man, an iniquitous rich man."112 Abū Dharr claimed to have learned five" precepts from the Prophet: "Pity the poor, spend time with them, think of the lesser men before the greater, tell the truth, say the hawgala."114 He condoned and practiced the fast, to prevent hardening of the heart; he recommended the ictikaf (spiritual retreat in a mosque). Muhammad is supposed to have said to him, "If they knew what I know, they would laugh little and weep much, they would not commit foolish acts in bed with women, and they would keep to the company of God"; at which Abu Dharr concluded, "By God! I would like to be a pruned tree!" But the Prophet criticized him for his desire for celibacy:

- "A recompense is reserved for you, for living with your wife."
- "How could I expect a recompense for my sinful desires?"

^{108.} Cf. Bukhārī, IV, 76 (riqāq). Ibn Mas^cūd left sayings with mystical tendencies, such as his qirā'a of Qur. 24:35; there are quotations in Muḥāsibī (Ri^cāya, f. 132), Makki (Qūt, I, 148: on allegorical meaning): cf. Ibn al-Jawzī, Quṣṣāṣ.

^{109.} Sh. Tab., I, 23 (the saying would be taken up by Anțāki); Jāḥiz, Bayān, I, 145 (taken up in the risāla attributed to Hasari).

^{110.} Jāḥiz, Bayān, III, 81 (it becomes a hadīth, according to Muḥammad ibn Yūnus Kadimī, ap. Dhahabī, l^ctidāl, s.n.; Harirī, Maq., XI). Umm al-Dardā Juhayma bint Hayy Awṣābiya, d. c. 80 (Dhahabī, Huffāz).

^{111.} Qūt, I, 255. The statement "taqarrab shibran ... dhirā an ..." is attributed to Ibn Musayyab by Muhāsibi (Ri aya, f. 122); Ibn Hanbal (V. 153) gives it as one of Abū Dharr's.

^{112.} Hanbal, V, 153.

^{113.} Seven, in Ibn Sacd's account (quoted in Goldziher, Vodesungen, Eng. trans., 41).

^{114.} Hanbal, V, 170; cf. V, 145. He even gives a hadith qudst: "O my servants, you are all sinners—ask forgiveness of me; you have gone astray—ask me the way. You can do nothing, and everything is in my power!" (V, 154).

- "If God wills, he will give you a good and beautiful child, a recompense of which you would in no way be the cause." 13

From his asceticism, Abū Dharr drew the logical conclusions concerning society. Against the profane hypocrisy of the politicians in the entourage of Mucawiya, who was then walī of Damascus, he boldly affirmed that the Quranic threats (9:34) against theft and avarice concerned not only evil, rich infidels, but also rich Muslims who live wickedly. 16 For his criticisms and his claim that Alī's right to the caliphate gave him precedence over everyone else, Abū Dharr was exiled from Damascus, where he had lived since 13/634.

The younger Hudhayfa ibn Husayl al-Yaman (d. 36/657) is a highly balanced and defined model of the Muslim mystic. 117 There would be later developments of his theses on science ("the science that we practice"), 118 on the intermittency of faith (which must be revived by daily istighfar), 119 and on the different sorts of hearts subjected to temptation (fitan): "the uncovered heart (of the mu²min, 'believer'), which remains pure like a flame; the uncircumcised heart (of the impious kāfir), caught in its sheath; the warped heart (of the munafig, the 'hypocrite'); and the smooth heart 121 (of the fasig, the 'occasional sinner')?"121 In politics, Hudhaysa rectified Abū Dharr's opinion: he forbade calls to revolt against unjust leaders, but, anticipating Hasan, he also recommended expressing disagreement with their injustices and disapproval of their lies. 123 He put his principle into practice in the case of CUthman, whose stewardship he criticized, saying, "He acted against the advice of the Companions, governed badly without consulting them, rewarded those with no right to reward." When ^cUthmān became irritated and summoned him to appear, Hudhayfa recanted and appeased him. His excuse for retreating was that he wanted to preserve the peace and unity of the Community. He said, "I buy my religious virtue (ishtarī dīnī) piece by piece, for fear of losing it all." This crafty bedouin ruse made

^{115.} Ḥanbal, V, 154, 172, 173, 169. Ibn Ḥāyiṭ declared it "azhad min al-Nabî" (Ḥazm, IV, 197).

^{116.} Ibn Sacd, IV, 166; Halabi, Sira, I, 306.

^{117.} On Hudhayfa, cf. my Salmān Pāk, Paris, 1933, 24 n 2, where I suppose that Hudhayfa was a Shiite. One might ask whether there was not a rift between Salmān and Ḥudhayfa at Madā in (where they are now buried in the same tomb); a rift analogous to the one between Kaysāniyya and Saba iyya, in the circles of initiate-artisans; cf. on this my "Futuwwa," in La Nouvelle Clio, Brussels, 1952, 182–83.

^{118.} Hanbal, V, 406.

^{119.} Following the Prophet's example (ibid. V. 393, 394). Cf. Bukharl, IV, 80 (riqāq).

^{120.} Muttagl, Kanz, I, 120.

^{121.} Musfali, which is flat, on which everything slips, and where "faith grows like a purpura in clear water, and hypocrisy like an ulcer in pus and blood."

^{122.} The first statement of the legal problem of the fasiq (cf. Passion, Fr 3: 188/Eng 3: 176).

^{123.} Hanbal, V, 384.

Nazzām indignant,¹²⁴ but it is easily excused. Ḥudhaysa meant, "I abandon one piece of my virtue in order to keep another, which I consider more important," i.e., "I cease to maintain my criticisms, although they are well founded, in order not to threaten the union of our community." ¹²⁵

He was obviously a partisan of concessions¹²⁶ and an opportunist, permitting the pursuit of well-being simultaneously in this world and the next; Hudhaysa was nevertheless the true forerunner of Hasan Başrī. He stigmatized twelve hypocrites from among the Ṣaḥāba, as well as the unjust emirs.¹²⁷ Claiming to quote Muhammad, he repeated a bitter prediction of the imminent end of time.¹²⁸ He was the first to write down the hadīth al-ibtilā: "When God loves one of his servants, he tests him with suffering..."¹²⁹

cImrān ibn Hasīn Khuzāci (d. 52/672)130 is a model of the man who gives his life entirely to God. Sent to Basra under CUmar as part of the judiciary, then name qādī by Ibn Amir, he soon resigned after involuntarily committing an injustice. (He also paid an indemnity to the victim.) Imran was ill and bed-ridden for the last thirty years of his life, and admirers of his growing resignation would visit him. One of them, Mutarrif, naively expressed his disgust at the sight of 'Imran: "Nothing prevents me from visiting you (frequently) but the sight of your illness." cImran responded, "Because God makes me find the illness good (ahabba dhālika ilayya), I find it good (lit., 'I love it'), coming from Him." Hasan Basri was his disciple; Ibn Sīrīn considered him the most virtuous Sahābi living in Basra and called him mujāb al-da^cwa ("he whose prayers are answered"). For a long time, cImran refused to have his pain relieved by kayy, cauterizations (perhaps he had abscesses), because the Prophet was hostile to them. In the year 50, as a white-haired old man, he yielded to his friends' insistence and allowed himself to be cauterized; not only was his pain not relieved, he told Mutarrif, but also he was deprived of a spiritual consolation that had sustained him, the taslim of the angels appearing around his head to greet him at the end of every prayer. Then God pardoned him, and he was given the taslim again shortly before his death. This description of his simple, exquisite life is taken from Ibn Sacd, an author generally hostile to

^{124.} Ibn Qutayba, Ta'wil, 25, 47.

^{125.} He is the first to celebrate the Umma (Hanbal, V, 383).

^{126.} He denies the isrā via Jerusalem, against the opinion of Abū Dharr and Zarr ibn Hubaysh (ibid. V. 387, 156).

^{127.} Ibid., V, 390, 384.

^{128.} In the same hadith, Qatada saw only a foretelling of the ridda of 633 A.D.

^{129.} Muttaqt, Kanz, V, 164. And his curious parable of the penitent fisherman, who, from fear of God, has himself burnt, and his ashes cast into the sea; God pardons him because of his fear (Hanbal, V, 383). Cf. Titus, according to the Talmud (Drach, I, 232).

^{130.} Ibn Sacd, Tabaqat, VII, 5 [there is another version in Hanbal, IV, 427]; Ibn al-Athīr, Usd, IV, 137.

mystics. ^cImrān represents the first flowering of the inner life to be found in authentic stories about the Ṣaḥāba.

Later hagiographers preferred to summarize the period of the Companions in two legends of highly dubious authenticity: first, that of the ahl alsuffa, "people of the bench," or "of the veranda," a name designating some muhājirān who had voluntarily impoverished themselves. 131 They were supposed to have remained poor and to have met frequently in a corner of the mosque at Medina for their devotional exercises. Sulamī had collected their names, in a separate work devoted to them; 132 Muḥāsibī, Ibn Karrām, and Tustarī accepted the legend's authenticity, and Abū Nucaym, Ibn Ṭāhir Maqdisī, and Subkī 133 later defended it.

The second legend is that of Uways Qarani, ¹³⁴ the ascetic from the Yemen whose odor of sanctity ¹³⁵ was carried all the way to Muḥammad. Only after the Prophet's death did Uways come to the Ḥijāz; he died fighting for ^cAlī at Ṣiffīn (31/657). The first author to write about him was Hishām Dustuwā ³ī (d. 153). Mālik called Uways's very existence into doubt, and his aḥādīth, though accepted by Ibn ^cIyād, were refused as "weak" by Bukhārī. ¹³⁶ Many later works collected Uways's manāqib. ¹³⁷ Gurgānī venerated him and invoked his name to induce ecstasy.

B. Among the $T\bar{a}bi^c\bar{u}n$: Ascetics of Kūfa, Baṣra, and Medina

From the year 40/660 to the year 110/728, cases of asceticism multiplied. Fadl ibn Shādhān could count eight notable ascetics at Ṣiffìn, 138 including four partisans of CAlī: Rabī ibn Khaytham, Harim ibn Ḥayyān, Uways Qaranī, CĀmir ibn Qays; two partisans of Mucāwiya: Abū Muslim Khawlānī and Masrūq ibn al-Ajda (who later made a retraction); and two neutrals: Abū CAmr Aswad ibn Yazīd Nakha i and Ḥasan Baṣrī.

^{131.} Qur. 54:8.

^{132.} Hujwiri, Kashf, 81-82; cf. Hilya, part II, ms. Paris 2028. The case of Suhayb may be historical; Ahmad Ghazāli (d. 517), in a sermon, in order to insinuate the superiority of saints to prophets, shows Isrāfil bringing Muḥammad the "keys to the treasures," and Muḥammad begging in vain for something with which to open "the souls of Suhayb and Uways" (Ibn-Jawzī, Quṣṣāṣ, f. 118 [Recueil, p. 97]).

^{133.} Ms. Berlin 3478.

^{134.} Uways, cf. Al-ma^cdan al-^cadanī (ms. no. 4978; As^cad 1690); Manāqib Uways of Lāmi^cī (cat. Rieu).

^{135.} Hadith of the "nafas al-Raḥmān." He is supposed to have ripped out the same tooth Muhammad had broken at Uhud (cf. Ibn 'Ukkāsha's vision). Ibn Sa^cd, VI, 11-114. Dhahabî, I^ctidāl, s.v.; ^cAṭṭār, I, 15-24. Accepted by Fadl ibn Shādhān (Jazā²iri, Hāwī al-maqāl, ms. London 8688, 22b).

^{136.} Ms. Köpr. majm. 1590.

^{137.} CAttar, I, 23.

¹³⁸ Khunsari, Rawdat, I, 233; same list in Dhahabi, Ictidal, I, 130.

It is possible to correct and complete this list of the first zuhhād (syn. nus-sāk, ^cubbād) and quṣṣāṣ, thanks in particular to Jāḥiz ¹³⁹ and ibn al-Jawzī: ¹⁴⁰

- i) Ascetics of Kūfa: [CAmr ibn] CUtba b. Farqad; Hamām ibn Ḥarth; Uways Qaranī; Alqama b. Qays Nakhacī; Ḥuṭayṭ b. Zayyāt, tortured by Ḥajjāj in 84; 141 Sacīd b. Jubayr. The best known is Abū AA Rabīc b. Rāshid Khaytham (d. 67); he gave up his belief in legitimacy before God's will at Karbala, and he converted a sinful woman who had come to tempt him. 142
- ii) Of Damascus: Ka^cb Aḥbār, who wrote down the ḥadīth al-jumjuma, among other scriptural parables; ¹⁴³ his student Khalīl ibn Mi^cdān; Bilāl ibn Sa^cd Sakūnī, teacher of Awza^cī and preacher; and Maṣqala, Ruqba's father. Then the movement slowed, quickening again only with the disciples of Ibn Adham and Dārānī.
- iii) Of Baṣra: cĀmir ibn [cAbd] Qays¹⁴⁴ and Bajāla ibn cUbda cAnbarī; cUthmān ibn Adham; Aswad ibn Kulthūm; Ṣila ibn Ushaym cIdawī and his wife Mucādha Qaysiyya;¹⁴⁵ Ḥayyān ibn cUmayr Qaysi.¹⁴⁶ The qāṣṣ Abū Bakr cAbdallah ibn abī Sulaymān Shikhkhīr Ḥarrashī Hudhalī; his sons, Bakr, cAlā, and especially Muṭarrif, (d. 87 or 95). Madhcūr b. Ṭufayl, a friend of Muṭarrif; cAṭā b. Yasār, Muwarriq cIjlī; Jacfar and Ḥarb b. Jarfās Minqārī; Jacfar ibn Zayd cAbdī, Bakr ibn cAA Muzanī, Harim b. Ḥayyān,¹⁴⁷ Ḥasan Basrī, cIsā b. Zādhān, Maskīna Tafāwiya.¹⁴²
- iv) Of Mecca: CUbayd ibn CUmayr and Mujāhid ibn Jubayr Makhzūmī ([d. 104] whom Ḥasan and Muhāsibī admired), a student of Ibn Abbās and the editor of his tafsīr. Mujāhid used to say, with his palm opened wide, "The heart is in this form. If a man commits a sin, it becomes like this," and he curled up one finger; "then another sin, like this," and he curled up another finger; then three, then four. Finally, at the fifth sin, he closed the fist with the thumb and said, "Then God seals the heart."
 - v) Of Medina: Tamim Dārī, the first qāṣṣ; 149 Abū Yūsuf CAA b. Salām
 - 139. Bayan, I, 190-94, 197; III, 98.
 - 140. Qussas, cf. Dhahabi, Huffaz.
 - 141. Tagrib.
- 142. Sarrāj, Maṣāni, 146. His mosque in Qazwin (Goldziher, M. St., II, 352; 1, 227, 287); cf. Awni and Huraylish, Rawd, 203 (cf. 84).
 - 143. Asin, Logia D. Jesu, in fine.
 - 144. Tabari, I, 2924: a vegetarian and chaste; does not go to the mosque on Friday.
 - 145. Sarraj, Masaric, 136-37.
 - 146. Ibn Sacd, VII, 137, 165.
 - 147. He is confused with Jabir ibn Hayyan, ap. Khashish.
- 148. Ibn Arabi, Muhād., II, 59. Add Şafwān ibn Mahraz Māzinī, Aswad ibn Sarī, and Ubay-dallāh ibn Umayr Laythi, whose native country is not specified.
- 149. The details of Tamim Dart's biography ought to be collected. He was the first writer of sermons in Islam, also the author of a brief apocalypse (hadīth al-jassāsa) and the teacher of Shihr ibn Hawshab (who was also Salmān's rāwī; Ibn Hawshab [d. 111 A.H.] had an interest in jafr). Tamim is buried in Bayt Jibrīn. It is known that the Prophet had promised him the territory of Hebron (tomb of Abraham), whence the famous waaf Tamīmī, on which see Revue des études islamīques, 1951, 78-82.

(d. 43), a former Jew; Muslim b. Jundub Hudhalī, $q\bar{a}ss$ of the mosque; ^cAA ibn Shaddād ibn al-Hādī (d. 83).

vi) Of the Yemen: a. M. Wahb b. Munabbih Dimārī (d. 110), who was a Qadarite for a time.

There is no extant historical detail for most of these names; the exceptions are Rabī^c ibn Khaytham, Muwarriq,¹⁵⁰ CAlqama, Muṭarrif,¹⁵¹ Mujāhid, Wahb,¹⁵² and especially Ḥasan Baṣrī (to be studied separately). During this period asceticism was simple, and the interiorization of ritual was still rudimentary: Qur⁵ānic meditation provoked the flowering of some hadīth, and there were cases of retreats, abstinence, and supererogatory prayer.¹⁵³

C. The Ascetics of the Second Century A.H. Classification

From 80/699 to 180/796, Muslim asceticism grew and gained strength. It was characterized by not being separate from the Community's daily life: all ascetics were led to perform the duty of brotherly correction (naṣīḥa); each zāhid was called to become a preacher, a qāṣṣ. The second century, especially at Baṣra, was the century of preachers. Without an official mandate and before the 'Abbasid regulation of the Friday sermon, they gave the khuṭba to arouse the fervor of believers. The spontaneous movement of the quṣṣāṣ, 154 so profoundly popular and later so maligned, 155 was the foundation of apologetic religious instruction in Islam (Qur³ānic school and Friday sermon), 156 just as the seminaries of the Karrāmiyya and the Qarmathians, in the following century, would become the foundation of the Islamic madrasas and universities. The quṣṣāṣ preached in the open air, converting the people by telling anecdotes in rhymed prose (sajc).

The ascetics or "servants" (^cubbād) began to attract the attention of the public, which gave them different names suited to their various habits of mortification and zeal: readers of the Qur³ān (qunā³) exciting themselves to public contrition (called bakkā³ūn, "weepers"), and preachers attacking

^{150.} Jāhiz admired this saying of his: "I have been asking God for an urgent favor for forty years. He has not given it to me, but I do not despair. -? -I renounce what is not my affair."

^{151.} His doctrine is well developed: taldil al-ghani; uns; the true sa²ih; dialogue of the living and the dead (Ibn Arabi, Muhād., II, 270).

^{152.} There have been no critical editions of his works (Mubiadā; fragments of an Isrā²iliyāt, ap. Hilyā and Iliyā). See his doctrine of faql, a better tool to serve God (cf. Ibn fAṭā); on Moses in the Sinai (see Baqlī, I, 273); on the heart, the dwelling-place of God (Tirmidhī, fllal, f. 202a).

^{153.} The invention of wird by Ibn Sirin.

^{154.} Goldziher, Muh. Stud., II, 161 ff.

^{155.} By the critics of the hadith, Ibn Hanbal (Makkt, Qūt, I, 151) and Ibn al-Jawzi (Quṣṣās), who at least perceives the importance of the movement. Ghazāli is the only one who fully realizes the moral value of their "apostolic missions."

^{156.} Anbari, an official preacher (khajib), uses Hasan's mawa iz.

the imagination by eschatological descriptions (quṣṣāṣ). Among those who came to listen in passing were doctors of the law (fuqahā) personally conscientious about morality, keepers of the tradition who were truly devout, and genealogists (nassābūn) with a taste for odd anecdotes.

I) ASCETICS OF BASRA

- a) Nussāk: the mystic disciples of Ḥasan Baṣrī: Muḥammad ibn Wāsi^c (d. 120 fighting in Khurāsān), Mālik ibn Dīnār (d. 128), Farqad Sinjī (d. 131);¹⁵⁷ and the less intimate disciples, Thābit Bunānī (d. 127) and Ḥabīb ^cAjamī (d. 156). Then, the group of Ibn Dīnār's disciples: ^cUtba ibn Abān ibn Dam^ca,¹⁵⁸ Rabāḥ Qaysī and his saintly friend Rābi^ca Qaysiyya, ^cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd, and Sa^cīd Nibājī.
- b) Bakkā m: Abū Juhayr Darīr, who died chanting the Qu rān; 159 Ṣub-cam (d. 146); Kahmas b. Ḥasan Tamīmī cābid (d. 149); 160 Hishām Qurdūsī (d. 148), a rāwī of Ḥasan; Haytham ibn Nammāz, a disciple of Yazīd Raqqāshī; Ghālib b. AA Jahḍamī; Ziyād b. AN Namīrī (d. 150); 161 and especially Abū Bishr Ṣāliḥ Murrī (d. 172), a disciple of Yazīd Raqqāshī, whose moving eloquence gained him lasting fame. 162
- c) Quṣṣāṣ: (Wacidis = semi-Qadarites). The Raqqāshī family, whose traditional eloquence in Persian was soon surpassed by their eloquence in Arabic: ¹⁶³ Yazīd ibn Abān R. (d. 131), disciple of Ḥasan and teacher of Dirār b. ^cAmr, Ḥajjāj ibn al-Furāfiṣa, Murrī, and Wakīc; Faḍl ibn cIsā b. Abān R., head of the Faḍliyya school, ¹⁶⁴ and his son cAbd al-Ṣamad R.
- d) Semi-Qadarite moral interpreters of the law, students of Qatāda: Mūsā b. Sayyār Uswārī, a commentator, in both Arabic and Persian, on the Qu³rān. His son, the qāṣṣ Abū ʿAlī ʿAmr b. Fa³id Uswārī, made Qu³rānic commentary in public for thirty-six years; he began with the second sura but was unable to finish. Filling his explanations with allegories (ta³wīlāt)
- 157. His hadith on the 500 virgins wearing the siff who came to Jerusalem (quoted by Lisān al-Dīn ibn al-Khaṭīb, Rawḍa, 31a; also Maqdisī, Muthīr, ms. Paris 1669, f. 35a), not unlike the companions of St. Ursula; extracts from his book, in Shibli, Ākām, 107; Baqli, Taſsīr, f. 278b. Sam²āni reads Farqad Sabakhī, not Sinjī.
- 158. Called Ghulām (deacon): his attrition (huzn) is reminiscent of Ḥasan's. He bound himself in chains and wore the stiff. He was killed on the jihād at Qaryat al-Ḥabāb (Ḥilya). His prayer (Qtt, I, 10).
 - 159. Tha labi, qatla.

160. Founder of an ephemeral school (Sam ani, 377b; Qalhati, loc. cit. [= Kashf, cited in P Fr

3:254 n 2/Eng 3:240 n 43].

- 161. Who justified his being a quest by quoting Anas ibn Malik (Que, I, 151); cf. Dhahabi, Istidal; Jahiz, Bayan, 111, 81; Ibn al-Najjar, ms. Paris 2089, s.v. Note that Anas ibn Malik is one of Yazid Raqqashi's sources (Kalabadhi, Akhbar, f. 8, 16). Ziyad Namiri and the tasliyat sala Ibrahim (Sanusi, saladbil).
 - 162. Jahiz, Bayan, II, 38.
 - 163. lbid., I, 159, 167, 168.
 - 164. The school is condemned as Qadarite by Ibn ^cUyayna.

and anecdotes (akhbār), he sometimes remained for several weeks on a single verse. 165 There was also Abū Bakr Hishām b. cAA Dustuwā î (d. 153), who collected many important parables from the Gospels; and his disciple Jacfar b. Sulaymān Dabcī (d. 133), a student of Farqad 166 and a friend of Rābica.

- e) Mu^ctazilite theologians: ^cAmr ibn ^cUbayd (d. 143); his disciple ^cAbd al-Wārith b. Sa^cīd Tannūrī, whose student Abū Ma^cmar recorded tales about Rābi^ca. ¹⁶⁷
- f) Strictly Sunni muḥaddithūn: Ayyūb Sikhtiyānī (d. 131),¹⁶⁸ whose first efforts Ḥasan had admired and whom Ibn ^cUyayna called "the greatest of the tābi^cūn"; Sikhtyānī's disciple Wuhayb b. Ward Makkī, venerated as a saint by Bishr Ḥāfi. Yūnus ibn ^cUbayd Qaysī (d. 139), another of Ḥasan's disciples, and ^cAbdallah ibn ^cAwn ibn Artabān¹⁶⁹ (d. 151, who, with Sikhtiyānī and Sulaymān Taymī, ¹⁷⁰ constitute Aṣma^ci's celebrated group of the "four" founders of the ahl al-sunna wa^cl-jamā^ca. Ḥammād ibn Zayd (d. 179) and Ḥammād b. Salama¹⁷¹ (d. 165), also noteworthy Sunnis, had feebler contact with ascetic ideas; but Ibn Salama trained Wakī^c ibn Jarrāḥ (d. 197), a fine theologian and a Ḥanafīte in law, whose Kitāb al-zuhd¹⁷² and reasoned conversion to mysticism¹⁷³ almost anticipate Ghazālī.
- g) Semi-Murji³ite Sunni quṣṣāṣ: Ibn Sīrīn's students and Sulaymān b. Ṭuhmān Taymî (d. 143),¹⁷⁴ who wrote the tasbīḥiyāt and was Faḍl Raqqā-shī's son-in-law.¹⁷⁵
- h) Nassābūn and philologists; Abū ^cAmr ibn al-^cAlā (d. 154), who was converted through Qu³rānic meditation (taqarra²a); and his disciple ^cAbdalmalik Aṣma^ci (d. 216).
 - II) ASCETICS OF KÜFA
 - a) Shiite mystics (Zaydī): First, the famous Abū Isrā²īl Mula²ī ^cAbsī¹⁷⁶
 - 165. Jāhiz, Bayān, I, 196.
 - 166. Tabari, I, 410.
 - 167. Sarraj, Masāric, 181.
 - 168. Ibn Qutayba, Ta wil, 93, 120; Sarraj, Masanic, 8.
- 169. Who condemns those who wept for Husayn at Karbala (Ibn Batta ^cUkbarī, *Sharlı*, bib., s.n. ^cUkbarī).
 - 170. Who was excluded, as a Murji ite, by Ghulam Khalii (Sharh al-sunna) and Ibn Qutayba.
 - 171. Hostile to Thawri (Makki, Qiir, II, 152).
- 172. In which he writes that during the mi^crāj, Muḥammad saw some of the damned with their lips being cut by incandescent scissors: they were quistāj who had not practiced what they had preached.
- 173. He proposes a preeminent role for the saints in the divine plan for creation (Passion, Fr 3:219/Eng 3:206-7).
 - 174. Jahiz, Bayan, I, 167; Ibn Qutayba, Macarif, 240.
- 175. Sam ani (s.v., qass) gives the following series of qass at Medina: Muhammad ibn Kab Qarazi (d. 108), Abu Harza Yq. ibn Mujahid Makhzumi, Abu Ibrahim ibn Sulayman.
- 176. Abū Isrā⁵il Ismā^cil ibn abi Ishāq Khalifa (Ibn Sa^cd, VI, 202, 231, 265; Sam^cānī, s.n.; Ḥan-bal, IV, 168).

- (b. 83,¹⁷⁷ d. c. 140), whose excessive doctrine of the i^ctikāf was quickly rejected.¹⁷⁸ then the Shiite Ṣūfiyya: Kilāb; Kulayb [b. Mu^cāwiya Asadī Ṣaydāwī, the teacher of Ibn abī ^cUmayr Azdī,¹⁷⁹ "the ascetic," and of Ṣafwān b. Yaḥyä Kūfī, "the keeper of the fast"; ¹⁸⁰ Kulayb was the author of a Kitāb al-maḥabba wa'l-wazā'if and a Kitāb bashārat al-mu³min]; Ibn Qinṭāsh and ^cAbdak, founder of the vegetarian ^cAbdakiyya sect. Jābir ibn Ḥayyān and Faḍl ibn Ghānim can be inserted here; they transmitted mystical sayings attributed to Imām Ja^cfar.
- b) Semi-Murji³ite Sunni Sūfiyya: Hāshim b. al-Awqāṣ, whom Bukhārī rejected as a rāwī; Abū Hāshim cUthmān b. Sharīk Kūfī (d. c. 160), who taught Manṣūr ibn Ammār and was venerated by Kharrāz; 181 Dāwūd Ṭā³ī, an ex-Ḥanafīte versed in various disciplines of canon law 182 who was converted and spent twenty years in solitude before his death (in 165); Ibrāhīm Taymī, author of the Musabbicāt; 183 Awn ibn Abdallah; Ibn Shaddād's student Dharr Hamdānī Marhabī, and especially his son Abū Dharr Umar (d. 150), 184 preacher and theologian, 185 whose disciple Ruqba ibn Maṣqala said that those who listened to him believed they were hearing "the trumpet of the Last Judgment"; Ruqba himself "obeyed him as if he were God." 186
- c) Pious anti-Murji²ite muhaddithūn who put limits on the use¹⁸⁷ of the Hanafite ra²y: The great Sufyān b. Sa^cīd Thawrī, (d. 161) head of a school; ¹⁸⁸ he studied with Wuhayb b. Ward, Ḥajjāj b. Furāfiṣa, and Yūnus b. ^cUbayd, and he taught lbn ^cUyayna Ḥilālī (d. 198), lbn ^cIyād, (d. 187) and Dārānī. Ibn ^cUyayna's student Abū Thawr Kalbī (d. 240) gave some ephemeral prestige to Thawri's legal school, ¹⁸⁹ which was widespread among mystics; Ibn Khu-

^{177.} The year after the yourn al-jamājim.

^{178.} Passion, Fr 1:240/Eng 1:226-27; Bukhāri, IV. 98.

^{179.} Tusy's list, 265. His disciple Abū'l-ʿAbbās Fadl ibn ʿIsā Shādhān Azdī Rāzī (d. c. 275) wrote a Kitāb al-qira'āt, unfortunately lost (cf. Fihrist, I, 26, 27, 31, 231), which was the fundamental work on the early recensions of the Qur³ān. He violently attacked the Sunni mystics Hasan Bastl and Ibn Karrām, along with the philosophers and the Qarmathians (Tusy's hist 254-55; Dāmād, Iqāzāt, 130; Khūnsāri, Rawḍāt, II, 210; on his son ʿAbbās, see Dhahabl, Qunā³, 642). Equally esteemed by the Hashwiyya and the Imāmīs, Ibn Shādhān was attacked by the Imāmī Jaʿfar Tūsi for giving importance to the hadūth al-ghār (Qur. 9:40), which puts Abū Bakr in the most prominent position.

^{180.} Tusy's list, s.v.

^{181.} Babbahānī, Khayrātiyya, 241a (according to Abū'l-Ma'ālī, Ibn Ḥamza in his Hādī, and Nasafi, ap. Tasfiyat al-qulūb).

^{182.} Ibn Qutayba, Macarif, 257; teacher of Ishaq Salūli (d. 204).

^{183.} Qūt, I, 7.

^{184.} Student of Atā and of Mujāhid, teacher of Wakic.

^{185.} Mutakallim; condemned as such by Abū Usāma Kūfi (d. 201), disciple of Ibn Shaddād (Harawi, Dhanm, f. 116b).

^{186.} Jähiz, Bayan, I, 144-45, 188; II, 158, 166.

^{187.} Rectifying it, as Najjar corrected Jahm.

^{188.} Adversary of Abū Hanīfa (Subki, II, 39, l. 8) and Ibn abī Layla (Qut. Masarif, 273). Associated with two mystics, Ibn Adham and Abū Hāshim; his disciples attacked Shaqiq.

^{189.} Ibn Hanbal's comment on this subject.

bayq Anṭāki, Ḥamdūn Qaṣṣār, and Junayd were Thawrites in law. There was also Abū ʿAmr b. Qays Mula ʾī (d. 146), a student of ʿlkrima ¹90 (d. 105); and Bakr b. Khunays, Bunānī's disciple and Ma ʿrūf Karkhī's teacher.

d) Nassābūn: Abū cUmayr Mujāhid ibn Sacīd (d. 144), disciple of Shacbī and teacher of Haytham b. Adī (d. 207) and of Dāwūd b. Mucādh Atakī, one of Hallāj's sources. 191

III) ASCETICS OF THE HIJAZ

In Mecca, there are few ascetics besides Hajjār and Ibn Jurayj Makkī (d. 150), the author of the first tafsīr, 192 one of Muhāsibī's sources.

In Medina: Muḥammad ibn Kab Qarazī; Abaz; Ab. Ab. Abd al-Azīz Cumarī; Abū cāmir Nubātī; and especially Abū Ḥāzim Maslama b. abī Dīnār Abū hadanī (d. 140), the first Sufi master after Ḥasan Baṣrī, according to Kalābābhī. 193 In Madanī's circle was Ibn al-Munkadir Taymī (d. 130), 194 a disciple of the ṣaḥābī Jābir b. AA Ansārī and the teacher of Fadl Raqqāshī and Sulaymān b. Harim Qurashī. 195 clsā b. Dāb Laythī (d. 171), a nassāb whose works on the cāshiqūn ("illustrious lovers") 196 are cited in the Fihrist, wrote an unusual piece 197 entitled Al-fityat al-tauwābbūn, The Young Penitents. It is about ten young Medinese libertines, Sulaymān b. Amr Qurashī and his friends, who suddenly renounce the world; but only their dramatic conversion scene is presented without any explanation of motives or results. Laythī's mysticism is rudimentary, expressed in a simple unified language quite close to that of the Dīwān of Abū'l-Catāhiya (d. 213).

IV) ASCETICS OF KHURĀSĀN

Among the jund from Başra and Kūfa who settled in the Arab military colonies in Northeastern Iran, mystical vocations appeared after 145/762,

- 190. From whom we have a very strange parable concerning the resurrection: God will revive a drowned man whose bones, having washed up onto the beach, will be eaten by camels whose turds have been burned (Ibn al-Jawzi, Safura, ms. Paris 2030).
- 191. Passion, 1st ed., 337 n 6 [a French version of Qushayst's note, contained in Essai, Arabic supplement, Q 3 (Risāla, bāb al-jaw^c, index, s.n., Muh. ibn Bishr). Massignon later said that this note was to be suppressed: Passion, Fr 3:266/Eng 3:250]; ms. Paris 2089, f. 107a.
 - 192. Makki, Qiit, I, 159.
 - 193. Tacarruf; Qit 11, 56; Jahiz, Bayan, I, 94, 111, 97; Tagrib., 178.
 - 194. His definition of caql (Tirmidhl, cllal, 2112).
- 195. Author of the famous liadith of the pomegranate (Dhahabī, I^ctidāl, s.v.): "And as for him who retires to pray on an island on which God brings forth a spring and a pomegranate tree—if he eats a pomegranate and succeeds in dying prostrate, it is this grace obtained (and not his efforts) that will procure salvation for him." The pomegranate is the fruit symbolizing Paradise (Tustari, Tafsir, 14-15).
 - 196. Fibrist, 90-91, 306; Tagrib., I, 464
 - 197. Discovered and published by L. Cheikho, in Machriq, XI, 260-64.

twenty years after the first theological movements (Jahm, Muqātil). The first mystic was Ibrāhīm ibn Adham ^cIjlī (d. 160/776), a pure Arab¹⁹⁸ of the Tamīm tribe who was born in Balkh. His favorite models were Ibn Dīnār, Bunānī and Sikhtiyānī, all from Baṣra. Ibn Adham came to ^cIrāq to receive the teaching of Ḥajjāj ibn Furāfiṣa and Abū Shu^cayb Qallāl, and to Mecca for Abū ^cAbbād Ramlī.¹⁹⁹ He lived for a long time in Jerusalem,²⁰⁰ then went into retirement, to live on the ḥalāl ground²⁰¹ of Mt. Lukkām, at Jebla near Laodicea. The influence of his powerful personality will be studied below.²⁰²

The second man called to mysticism was Ibn al-Mubārak²⁰³ (b. 108, d. 180), Wuhayb ibn Ward's disciple and an anti-Malikite Ḥanafi, author of a Kitāb al-zuhd and teacher of Na^cīm ibn Hammād.

The third was Fuḍayl ibn clyāḍ (d. 187), a disciple of Abān ibn abī cAyyāsh²⁰⁴ and Thawrī. Ibn clyāḍ came to live at Kūfa and finally died on retreat in Mecca after losing his son, cAlī (who died chanting the Qur an in high fervor). 205

Throughout the second century A.H., the mystics still indistinguishable

198. His genealogy: ibn Adham ibn Manşūr ibn Yazid ibn Jābir. A characteristic of the legend of the Buddha was later attributed to him (legend of the beggar prince of Balkh; cf. the legend of his departure for the hunt, according to Ibn Manda, ap. Tagrib., I, 428.

199. Tales of Ibn Bashshär.

200. Maqdisi, Muthir, ms. Paris 1669, f. 35b, 126a.

201. Land duly given, after its conquest, to the Community (and not as a fief to an individual; cf. Anṭākī, shubuhāt). Note that before his arrival, the mystical movement barely existed in Syria, a powerful argument against the supposed imitation from the Orthodox Christian monasteries of Palestine.

202. Hallauer's monograph should be reviewed in light of two sources now published: the Hilya (VII, 367-94; and VIII, 1-57) and the Tärikh Dimashq (abridged) of Ibn 'Asākir (II, 167-96). Ibn Adham fled from Balkh in 132 (during Abū Muslim's revolt) and joined his sister, a pure Arab of the Bant 'Ijl, in Kūfa (Aghani, 2nd ed., XII, 106-7), where she had a son, the poet Muhammad b. Kunāsa Asadī. The other stages of Ibn Adham's life are well known, except the journey he is supposed to have made, shortly before his death, to the Bahr Lūt (= the Dead Sea, the paneremos of the Essenes and the first Christian Palestinians). That visit might have made another Khurāsānian, Ibn Karrām, decide to come to Segor. Ibn Adham was killed in jihād on the Syrian coast and buried at Jebla. His tomb, which I visited there, was enriched under the Mamlūks and Ottomans by the addition of a great mosque and wasf (later parceled out, c. 1930; photograph by Nieger [in Essai]). In the fourteenth century (Yāfi'i) an order was founded under a name derived from Ibn Adham's, the "Edhemiya," which developed zāwiyas in the major Ottoman cities, notably Jerusalem (where the zāwiya still existed in 1917: Rev. Et. Is., 1951, 93).

203. He fought the Qadarites and Murji²ites, the Khārijites and the Shi²a (it was he who classified them as such, according to Ghulām Khaltl, Sharļi al-sunna; cf. Sh. Tab., I, 59); he was also against the Jahmites (Alūsī, Jalā, 60). Ibn al-Mubārak is the source of a rigidly traditional ascetic current running from his teacher, Sulaymān Taymi, through Sufyān Thawrī and Sufyān Ibn CUyayna, students of his, and Waki², to libn Ḥanbal. Through the latter, the current would influence all of Ḥanbalism (cf. Kitāb al-zuhd of lbn Ḥanbal, ed. Cairo, 1357, 400 pp.). Ibn al-Mubārak ought to be studied. His tomb is at Hit, a curious and vety archaic city on the Euphrates, where a Karaite ghetto survives, near some tar pits.

204. Makkl, Qūt, 29. He trained Muslim Khawwas, the teacher of Bishr Haft.

205. Tha labi, Qatla.

from the humble troupes of homeless poor 206 and ordinary worshipers camped in the mosques did not draw the criticism of the theologians and doctors of sacred law. Nevertheless, mystics from Hasan to Şāliḥ Murrī, with their sermons invoking contrition and their supererogatory penance, were called Wacidiyya and, as such, confused with the Qadarites, when they were in fact semi-Qadarites. In addition, the punctilious traditionists were suspicious and saw indirect criticisms of their own literal-mindedness in sayings like CAmr ibn Qays Mulazi's, 207 "The hadīth, 'In keeping my heart for company, through my heart I reach my Lord,' is dearer to me than the solutions to fifty legal problems." Ibn CIyād openly attacked the ahl al-ḥadīth. 208 The ultimate doctrinal consequence of mysticism (i.e., divine union) was already appearing in Kahmas, Kulayb, Rabāḥ, and Rābica, whom the orthodox doctors of the third century condemned collectively, post mortem, as zanādiqa.

3. HASAN BASRT

A. Sources for His Biography, Chronology of His Life

1) SOURCES

There is no definitive account compiled by his disciples. Qatāda, Ibn cAwn, Yūnus and Ayyūb provide a few notes. Scattered mentions—deferent but also reserved, distant, or hostile—are made by muḥaddithūn like Ibn Sacd (d. 230; Ṭabaqāt, VII, 114-29) and Ibn Shādhān (d. c. 275; lost work); oby commentators and historians like Abū'l-Yaqzān (d. 190)²¹⁰ (whose work is used by Ibn Qutayba [d. 276; Macārif, 225, 273, 286]) and Ṭabarī (d. 310; Tacrīkh, III, 2488-93 and passim); and by theologians like Jāḥiz (d. 255; Bayān; II, 34-39, 50-54, 88, 154, III, 66, 68-71, 75, 76, 79, 82, 83, 86). The remarks of later hagiographers such as Abū Nucaym Isfahānī (d. 430; Hilya, v. III) must be used with great caution. 211

II) CHRONOLOGY OF THE LIFE OF ABŪ SA^CĪD HASAN B. ABĪ 'L-HASAN YASĀR MAYSĀNĪ BASRĪ

Year 21/643. Birth, probably at Medina; his father is Yasar, a Mesenian

^{206.} Their fraternal rules for communal life (bread, salt, ashes; women raise their veils, as before relatives); cf. Passion, Fr 3:241; 1:562-63; 2:122/Eng 3:227; 1:515-16; 2:110-11. Jāḥiẓ (Bayān, III, 3) sees these customs (nār al-tahuāl) as a shu^cābī infiltration.

^{207.} Tagrib., s.a. 146.

^{208.} Sh. Tab., 1, 67.

^{209.} Extracts in Khunsari, Rawdat, II, 210; Tusy's list, 255.

²¹⁰ Fihrist, 94.

²¹¹ Ibn al-Jawzi did not write a Faḍā li Hasan Baṣrī, as Brockelmann erroneously inferred from his Kitāb al-gussās. [See GAL2 and bib., Ibn al-Jawzi, al-Hasan al-Baṣrī.]

slave of Zayd b. Thābit Anṣārī (or rather of Ḥumayl b. Qaṭana); his mother is Khayra, said to be Umm Salama's servant. 212 Yasār is freed after his son's birth.

Hasan is brought up in Basra (where he falls and breaks his nose). He supposedly meets Hudhayfa (d. 36 at Madā³in) there as well.

Year 35. He passes through Medina at the time of the yawm al-dar.

Years 37-41. Returns to Baṣra. During the conflict among the Companions of the Prophet, he imitates the neutral attitude adopted by Aḥnaf ibn Qays Tamīmī (d. 67),²¹³ whom the walī ²¹⁴ made his representative to the Baṣran jund (Banū Sa^cd, of the Tamīm) in Khurāsān (Aḥnaf ibn Qays comes back to live in Baṣra from 37 to 44). Ḥaṣan develops ties to him, to Abū Bakra, and, especially, through Hayyāj ibn cImrān Burjumī,²¹⁵ to cImrān Khuzā (d. 52), the former qāḍī of the town, whose admirable resignation to God's will so impressed the inhabitants.²¹⁶

Years 50-53. He goes on jihād near Kābul, fights in Anduqān and Andaghan, and in Zābulistān with Samura ibn Jundub (who returns to Baṣra in 53 and dies there in 60).

Year 60. Having returned to Başra, he protests against the manner of Yazid I's selection.

Years 65-85. His great period of oratory and doctrine. He associates himself with Mutarrif Ḥarrashī (d. 87), ^cAṭā ibn Yasār (d. 94), and even with Ma^cbad Juhanī, the head of the extremist Qadarīs. ²¹⁷ Very soon, following the example of ^cAbdallah ibn ^cUmar (d. 74), he explicitly dissociates himself (tabriya) from those Qadarīs; ²¹⁸ the semi-Qadarīs Ghaylān and ^cAmr ibn ^cUbayd imitate Ḥasan's attitude.

Years 81-82. He refuses to participate in Ibn al-Ash^cath's insurrection against the cruelty of the wālī Ḥajjāj, ²¹⁹ although his friends Aṭā Mujāhid ²²⁰

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212. Ibn Khallikān, I, 139; ʿAṭṭār, I, 24.
213. Ibn Saʿd, VII, 66.
214. ʿAbdallāh Ibn ʿĀmir (29-44 A.H.), then Ziyād (Tagrib., I, 96, 142).
215. Ibn Saʿd, VII, 109; Ḥanbal, IV, 428; Dhahabi, Iʿsidāl, s.n.
216. See above, sec. 2. A.
217. Executed in 83 as a partisan of Ibn al-Ashʿath.
218. Ibn Baṭṭa ʿUkbarl; Harawi, Dhamm, 126b, 127a.
219. Ibn Saʿd, VII, 119.
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²²⁰ Imprisoned until Hallaj's death.

and Sa^cīd ibn Jubayr²²¹ do take part, along with Talq ibn Ḥabīb ^cAnazī²²² and ^cAmr ibn Dīnār.²²³

Years 86-95. Ḥajjāj's police suspect him; he is pursued and must go into hiding.²²⁴

Year 99. He is named qāḍī of Baṣra momentarily, at the accession of ^cUmar II, as a replacement for ^cAdī ibn Arṭāh. He resigns and is succeeded ²²⁵ by Iyās ibn Mu^cāwiya (d. 122).

Death of his brother Sacid.

Year 101. In a resonant sermon he expresses disapproval of Ibn al-Muhallab's anti-Syrian excesses.

Year 110. Death, Thursday the first of Rajab (= 10 October 728); his body, washed by Ayyūb Sikhtiyānī and Ḥamīd Ṭawīl Khuza^cī, is buried in old Baṣra (now Zubayr); Ibn Sīrīn refuses to come to the funeral. Ḥaṣan is survived by three sons: ²²⁶ Sa cid, Ja far, and cAbdallah, who supposedly burns his father's books, in accordance with Ḥaṣan's last requests. ²²⁷

B. List of Sources for His Works

I) SPURIA

Others, up to the present, have listed under Hasan's name only spuria:

- a) Fifty-four farida: in manuscripts, Paris 780, Köpr. 1603, Aya Şufiya 1642, Laleli 1703; Qaṭalān catalogue Cairo, 1332 no. 350 (p. 28); printed, Constantinople, 1259, 1260. An interesting brief ascetic work that in no way diverges from the main lines of Hasan's doctrine; but the manuscript in Paris mentions authors of the fourth/tenth century, and if the work has an authentic, early core, it is difficult to discern from the rest.
- b) Risāla fī faḍl ḥaram Makka (ilä'l-Ramādī), ms. Zah. Majm. 38. An insignificant pamphlet on the cumra, probably apocryphal.

^{221.} Taken and executed in 94.

^{222.} Semi-Murji ite.

^{223.} He was pursued, but he escaped.

^{224.} Aghānî, IV. 40.

^{225.} Ibn Sacd, VII, 116: Tabari, II, 1347.

^{226.} Jāḥiz, Bayān, I, 195; Ḥasan's grandson Ja^cfar ^clsā (d. 217) is mentioned (by Dhahabī, I^cti-dāl, s.n.)

^{227.} Ibn Sa^cd, VII, 127.

c) Numerous fragments from Hasan figure, without indication of isnād or of origin in a specific text, in the works of Muḥāsibī, Kharrāz, and Tirmidhī.

II) LIST OF HIS AUTHENTIC WORKS:

a) Mawā^ciz, sermons in public. Text collected and established in his life-time²²⁸ by his disciples²²⁹ and published after his death by Abū ^cUbayda Hamīd Ṭawīl ibn Ṭarkhān Khuza^cī (d. 142).²³⁰ After their publication, the sermons were frequently quoted (notably by Jāḥiz) without isnād, which proves there was a textus receptus with copies in circulation.

^cUbaydallah ^cAnbarī (d. 168),²³¹ the official qāḍī-khaṭīb of Baṣra, soon amalgamated the rasā²il of Ghaylān²³² with these sermons, and they seem to have been the basis for the diluted text of semi-Qadarī rasā²il that was sent, under Ḥasan's name, to the caliphs ^cAbd al-Mālik and ^cUmar II.²³³

- b) Tafsīr, glosses on the Qur²ān. Ḥasan's glosses on the Qur²ān were coordinated in the form of tafsīr by the Mu^ctazilite ^cAmr ibn ^cUbayd.²³⁴ In the fourth century, two additional nsālas were known under Ḥasan's name, one about the numbering and division of the verses (fi'l-^cadad), the other about their chronological order (nuzūl).²³⁵ His qirā²a was original; numerous examples of the special characteristics of his reading are given in the shawādhdh of Ibn Khālawayh.²³⁶
- c) Masā³il, question/response. Ḥasan's private teaching on dogma and the morals prescribed by canon law seems to have survived, in its original form of quaestiones or masā³il, because of Mu^cadh ibn Mu^cadh's teacher, Ash^cath ibn ^cAbdalmalik Ḥamran (d. 146); Yaḥya Qattan expressed esteem for this edition. ²³⁷ The masā³il are the most likely source of the famous sunan or "rules for communal life" ²³⁸ later compiled in Ḥasan's name for the Bakriyya school. Ḥallāj cites a section (kitāb al-ikhlās) on the pilgrimage, ²³⁹

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228. Ibn Sacd, VII, 126; Samcani, 39.
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^{229.} Abū CUbayda Bāji.

^{230.} Mutarrif's rāwī; teacher of Hammād ibn Salama.

^{231.} Jähiz, Bayān, I, 161. Anbarī is a well-known theologian.

^{232.} He had had an audience with Umar II (Khashīsh, ap. Malaṭī, f. 315-16).
233. Shahrastāni, I, 59; Murtadā, Munya, 12-14; Aghāni, VIII, 151. Cf. risāla of Muṭatrif to Umar II (Sarrāj, Luma, 65) and a major risāla that the Hilya attributes to Hasan (cf. Passian, 3:242/Eng 3:228).

^{234.} Ms. London 821.

^{235.} Fihrist, 37, 38, 34.

^{236.} Ms. Hamidiyya 24.

^{237.} Dhahabî, Ictidal, s.n.

²³⁸ Expression of G. Lioni Africano, Descrittione, 111, ch. 43.

^{239.} Passion, Fr 1:593/Eng 1:546.

and Kilānī reproduces a fragment on "the forty-five errors to be avoided during canonical prayer." 240

d) Riwāyāt, Sayings. In the manner of the ahl al-ḥadīth, most of Ḥasan's disciples transmitted his sayings only in the oral form of independent nwāyāt. Logia had to be compiled later, by the bakkā Hishām ibn Ḥassān Qurdūsī (d. 148), a student of Ḥawshab ibn al-Dawraqī. Wuhayb ibn Ward and Thawrī did not accept what Qurdūsī had collected, but Ibn cUyayna did.²⁴¹ Another collection (Maṣḥaf), made by Abān ibn abī Ayyāsh Fīrūz (d. 128 or 141)²⁴² and reedited by Abū Awāna Waḍḍāḥ (d. 170 or 176),²⁴³ forced Ḥasan's nwāyāt, by fabricating isnād for them, into the classical form of the hadīth attributed to the Prophet; fifteen hundred of them were given with Anas ibn Mālik as an artificial link.²⁴⁴ Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd (d. 177) more honestly gave Ḥasan's nwāyāt as marāsil, without "completing" their isnād.

There are no other extant details on the other four compilers of the period: the Qadarī Mubārak ibn Faḍāla (d. 165), Abū Sa^cd, Abū Bakr Hudhalī, and Mukhtār ibn Filfil.²⁴⁵

Jābir ibn cAbdallāh Yamāmī was exiled from Bukhārā for bringing out another edition of Ḥasan's niwāyāt, shortly after 200/185. 246 We know that Aḥmad Jawbiyārī forged a link of isnād through Abū Hurayra for various marāsil (perhaps complete fabrications), which he then passed to Ibn Karrām. 247

As a general rule, isnād linking Ḥasan to the Prophet via Anas ibn Mā-lik, Abū Hurayra, or ^cAlī are fabrications. Suyūtī made great efforts to show²⁴⁸ that Ḥasan had the opportunity to meet ^cAlī and Ṭalḥa. Perhaps. But as Dhahabī showed, the only Companions whose rāwī he might have been are ^cImrān Khuzā^cī, ^cAbd al-Raḥmān ibn Samura, and Abū Bakra; and, possibly, Nu^cmān ibn Bashīr (2–67) and Mughīra ibn Shu^cba.

^{240.} Ghunya, 11, 97.

^{241.} Dhahabi, Ictidal,

^{242.} Author discussed by his contemporary Ibn Dīnār and accepted by Ḥammād ibn Salama and Anṭāki.

^{243.} Dhahabi, Ictidal; Tagrib., I, 482; Ibn Qutayba, Macarif, 252.

^{244.} Makki, Qūt, 11, 141. Laying bare the formative process of the corpus of Sunni traditions, the future Saḥīḥ of the third century. This collection of the hadith of Anas ibn Malik and Hasan, celebrating chastity and condemning liwāṭa, was published three times: in the edition of Hasan's freedman Abū Makīs Dīnār ibn ʿAbdallāh Ḥabashi (250 hadīth), published by Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn Ḥabīb Qaffās (d. 286); and editions by Dāwūd ibn ʿAffān Khurāsānī and Ghulām Khalīl.

^{245.} Dhahabi, Ictidal; Muhasibi, Ricaya, f. 10b.

^{246.} Dhahabi, Ictidal.

^{247.} Herein, ch. 5, sec. 2.

^{248.} Ithaf al-firqa, Paris, 2800.

C. His Political, Exegetical, and Legal Doctrines

We are in the presence of one of the most powerful and complete figures of early Islam. The learned Sabian Thābit ibn Qurra (d. 288) made the wise judgment, "I envy the Arab nation for three men: "Umar as head of state, Hasan as ascetic, and Jāḥiz as philosopher."

Ḥasan was not only an ascetic. In addition to teaching the fine points of asceticism to Farqad, he taught tafsīr to Qatāda (d. 117), kalām to Amr ibn Ubayd, and grammar to Ibn abī Isḥāq. 250 Abū Ḥayyān Tawḥīdī, who supplies these details, 251 comments,

Hasan was a master not only of piety, asceticism, abstinence and forgiveness, union with god $(ta^2alluh)^{25^2}$ and veneration of His inaccessibility (tanazzuh), but also of law, rhetoric, and advice for brotherly correction; his eloquence, still famous, was essentially practical; his sermons touched the heart and his style disturbed the intelligence.

Hasan's personality ripened during the great crisis of the early Islamic community. He was fourteen when ^cUthmān was killed, and he was able to meet 70 survivors²⁵³ from among the 313 combatants of Badr. He was the first to formulate the "Sunni" solution to the crisis of the years 36/656-41/661: his coherent political doctrine shows, psychologically, the source of his "conversion" to mysticism and, socially, the marks of the first historical manifestation of Sunnism. ²⁵⁵

- 249. Tawhidi, Taqriz al-Jāļsiz (ap. Yāqūt, Udahā, VI, 69-70).
- 250. On his orthoepy, see Fibrist, 41; Aghānī, XVIII, 124; XXI, 60.
- 251. Tawhidi, ap. Yāqūt, Udabā.
- 252. Perhaps in this case the word has the attenuated philosophical nuance of "devotion" (herein, ch. 2 n 153-55 and related text).
 - 253. The Hilya adds: "Most of them wore the siif" (sit).
- 254. Attar says that Hasan, who had been a jeweler, was converted while on a voyage to Rüm, at the funeral service for the emperor's son (Attar, I, 25). But the description is borrowed from the Syntipus (sec. 137 Chauvin, Bibliographie VI, 71 [1001 Nuits]; VIII, 139).
- 255. Cf. above all Hilya, II, 131-60. There are studies by H. H. Schaeder (in D1, XIV, 1-72) and by H. Ritter (D1, 1933). Ibn Taymiyya attributes to Ibn al-Jawzī some Manāqib wa akhbār H. B., which seem to be lost (Salāmī, Radd, I, 348). It is very important to note that Hasan Başrī, according to Balādhurī, was secretary to Rabīc b. Zayd Hārithī, the governor of Khurāsān, and that he organized the colonization of Fars (Baydā; Khabr, where his brother Sacid was buried) and Khurāsān by the Baṣrans. In Baṣra, he may very well have lived in the neighborhood called al-Qasāmil; his last descendent, Abū Yaclā A-b-M Abdt ibn al-Ṣawwāf died there (in 490: Ibn al-Jawzī, Muntaṣam, IX, 103). Etymology: Qismīl (Wüst., Reg., 375). Abū Nucaym denies that Hasan was a Qadarite (Kitāb dhabb al-qadar can H.-b-a. H., cited by Ayn al-Qudāt Hamadhānī, Shakwā, 35b). Abū Abdallāh Muḥammad ibn Abd al-Wāḥid Maqdisi wrote a juzz fi man laqāḥu min aṣḥāb HB (Salāmī, Radd, I, 348). HB's musuad was published by the Mālikī Ismā'li ibn Hammād (d. 282): Ibn Farḥūn, 94); Ibn al-Qayyim cites a collection of his falwas in seven books (Iclām, I, 19). In 200 A.H., Jābir ibn Abdallāh Yamanī was chased out of Bukhara for declaring himself Hasan Baṣrt's disciple (Ictidāl).

Hasan begins with the fundamental notion that the social body of Muslim believers (umma, "Community") is and must remain one; its distinctive feature is obedience to God, from Whom all power flows. Hasan states 256 (1) that all believers owe equal respect and obedience to the government's representatives, as long as their official decisions do not contravene the Islamic faith and even if their personal conduct is condemnable (contradicting the Khārijites and Imāmīs); (2) that every believer must, at all cost, remain united in his heart with his brothers: he must continue his brotherly participation in communal life, expressing, openly and without hesitation, the private judgments of his conscience concerning any sin committed by the leaders, in an effort to "advise" (nash) the Community about justice. Hasan does not call for tacit secession (muctazila, of the year 657) or violence against the government (movement of Ibn Ash^cath, of the year 700; cf. the Zaydis). Believers must respect the political order and keep their place in it, even when they have been treated unjustly and find themselves obliged to deplore the personal conduct of those in control. Neither khurūj not katmān.

Therefore, Abū Bakr's imamate was doubly legitimate,²⁵⁷ and ^CUthmān is remembered as innocent.²⁵⁸ ^CAlī's election was valid, but he and Ṭalḥa share the guilt for the opening of hostilities in the Camel War. ^CAlī was wrong to accept the arbitration (hukūmat al-ḥakamayn) at Ṣiffin and right to exterminate the Shurāt at Nukhayla.²⁵⁹ While Ḥasan solemnly exhorts the Baṣrans to remain subject to the Umayyads, he unequivocally observes that Mu^Cāwiya has committed five grave offenses against the Community:²⁶⁰ he

abandoned the administration to his own creations, the parvenus; he monopolized authority without mashwara, without consulting either the Companions or the upright people; though he had been elected, he made the caliphate hereditary by leaving it to his son Yazīd, a drunkard with silken clothes who played the guitar; he make Ziyād (who was a bastard son of Mu^cāwiya's father) legitimate; he had Ḥujr [Ibn ^cAdī] and his companions executed for cursing him twice.

Hasan always put his firmness into practice. Muțarrif said expressively to Qatāda,²⁶¹ "Hasan is like the man who puts people on guard against the flashflood but stays with them in the riverbed (wad) (still dry, but which he knows will soon be submerged)"; Qatāda himself would say, "He for-

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256. Passion, Fr 3:164-65, 202-3, 205 n 4/Eng 3:152-53, 190-91, 193 n 69. 257. Kilani, Ghunya, I, 68; Mas<sup>c</sup>ūdi, Tanbih, 337. 258. Mubarrad, Kāmil, II, 144-45. 259. Ibid.; and II, 154. 260. Tabari, II, 146; cf. Lammens, Mo'āwia, 104. 261. Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, VII, 103.
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bade his fellow citizens to revolt, but when the revolt came, he stayed in the city."²⁶² Ḥasan courageously faced²⁶³ the famous Ḥajjāj (walī after 75, d. 95), who was known for his autocratic cruelty. Summoned before Ibn Hubayra, Ḥasan was alone in daring to undercut Yazīd's memory.²⁶⁴ But he refused, with equal firmness, to take part in the anti-Umayyad insurrection of Ibn al-Ash^cath (81) or to condone Ibn al-Muhallabs's anti-Syrian excesses (101).²⁶⁵ He clearly explained that penitence, rather than combat, would obtain divine redress of social injustices.²⁶⁶ His position, which is mystical in the true sense, went unrecognized by factionalists and skeptics alike. Ibn Shādhān, for example, accused him of "wanting to flatter all parties," and Ibn abī'l-ʿAwjā reproached him for "being unable to join any particular school."

Hasan also emphasized Muhammad's role as head of state:

"I call you to God," said Muhammad to all the clans of the Quraysh. "I announce the imminence of His chastisement. I have been commanded to make war against men until they confess, 'No god but God!' (observe canonical prayer, and pay the legal tithe). ²⁶⁷ If they make the confession, their blood and their property become sacred to me, except as payment for debts incurred (by them). And the right to judge them belongs to God alone."

Fear (khawf) guided the Prophet in his conduct with respect to God and prevented him from neglecting His command. 268

Those who could see Muhammad saw him depart in the morning and return at dusk, never setting brick upon brick (libna) or reed upon reed (qaṣāha) (= building neither wall nor fence). A Sign (falam) rose up before him, and he hurried towards it. Save yourselves! Save yourselves! Make haste! Make haste! Where are you straying? Already the best among you are in advance, the Prophet has departed, and as for you, you are viler the every day (var.: every year)! Open your eyes! Open your eyes!

Muḥammad had no trivet (on which to place his dishes), no pillow, and no doorman. 270

Muhammad is presented by Hasan as a warner and precursor; if he is idealized a little, he is also rightly depicted in the vehemence of his prose-

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262. "While Mutarrif gave his warning and then fled." Cf. Ibn Khallikan, I, 140.
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^{263.} Their meetings (Ibn Qutayba, Ta²wîl, 100; Aghānī, IV, 74; Sam²anī, 397b; Ibn ʿAbd Rabbihi, ʿIqd, III, 16).

^{264.} While Ibn Sirin and Shacht exercised tagiyya (Ibn Khallikan, loc. cit.).

^{265.} Tabari, II, 1391.

^{266.} Ibn Sacd, VII, 119, 125.

^{267.} Hilya. The part in parentheses seems to be something Hasan added to justify Abu Bakt.

^{268.} Tirmidhl, 'Ilal, 2112; Ibn 'Abd Rabbihi, 'Iqd, I, 267.

^{269.} Tardhilün, which became a liadith (Suyūti, Durar, 186).

^{270.} Tabari, III, 2426.

lytizing spirit.271 Hasan professes no devotion to the legitimacy of the Prophet's person or descendents: the Quranic verse 42:22 ("al-mawadda fi'l-qurbä," a favorite argument of the Shiites) does not concern blood relations; the true meaning is, "You must love anyone who, by obeying God, comes close to Him."272 In a commentary on Qur. 41:33, Hasan describes the Prophet as an example, which every believer is able to follow, of obedience to God: "The friend of God! God's intimate, this is he! He whose prayer God answers, he who preaches among men that by which God has answered his prayers, and who acts zealously according to it ... he is God's lieutenant here below..."273 On the other hand, Hasan repeats as a hadith mursal of the Prophet the saying, "After me emirs will come who will announce their wisdom from high seats, while their hearts are filthier than carrion."274 The tradition was directed at some mulūk of whom it was said, in Hasan's presence, that they excused themselves by claiming, "If our acts are accomplished in this way, it is that God so decreed it," which made Hasan cry out, "They have lied, those enemies of God!"275

His very rationalistic exegesis of the Quran has marked positivist tendencies, perhaps accentuated by Amr ibn Ubayd, the Muctazilite editor of the tafsir. It is particularly useful to refer to Hasan's refutation of the fables about the first sons of Adam and to his remarks on Abraham, the ibtilä and the mafdī (Isaac, not Ishmael),276 and Harūt and Marūt, who are not fallen angels but "non-Arab" princes (ciljān).277 With his critical mind, Hasan saw the tahjiyāt ("salutations") ending the second rake a of the salāt as an islamization of an earlier custom²⁷⁸ intended for pagan idols.²⁷⁹ His gira a (partially preserved by Ibn Khālawayh) was rich in unusual punctuations and vocalizations. His exegesis, though critical, is firmly realist on several important points. On the vision of God (nu'ya), he was almost alone with Ibn Abbas in affirming that it was really the divine essence (and not the angel) that Muhammad beheld during his night journey.280 Hasan dared to teach that in Paradise the elect would see the unveiled divine essence but without grasping it (bilā iḥāṭa). 281 "If the faithful thought that in the next life they would not see God, their hearts would melt with sor-

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271. Tabari invokes Hasan's testimony to decide several historical points related to the Prophet and his four successors (I, 1013, 1173, 1456, 1835, 1849, 2373, 2560, 2697, etc.).
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272. Baqli, s.v.
273. Baqli, f. 325b, s.v. Cf. Muḥāsibi, Naṣā<sup>5</sup>iḥ, 5b.
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^{274.} Jahiz, Bayan, I, 88.

^{275.} Ibn Qutayba, Ta2wil, 225; cf. Ibn S2'd, VII, 125, 127.

^{276.} Tabari, I, 290, 316-17.

^{277.} On Qur. 2:96; Ibn Qutayba, Ta²wil, 223, 264.

^{278.} Tirmidhi, cllal, 170b.

^{279.} Cf. Biruni and Ibn Hazm on the repulsiveness of the external rites of the hajj.

^{280. 1}yad, Shifa, I, 159, 165.

^{281.} Shafrawi, Tab., I, 29; which does not imply a contradiction (cf. Spitta, Asharitentum, 102).

row in this world!"282 he does not appear to have broached the theological problem of the sifāt (divine attributes), and his Mu^ctazilite disciples, when presenting them, followed Jahn's detailed treatment.²⁸³

A few things should be kept in mind. Ḥasan's reading of the Qu²rān is a kind of dynamic meditation in which he assimilates the commandments that the sacred text has addressed to the prophets, and asks his disciples to apply these commandments to themselves.²⁸⁴ Like Ubayy and Ibn Mas^Cūd, he generalizes the "mithl nūrihī" (24:35) by means of the gloss "fi qalb almu²min."²⁸⁵ On Qur. 102:1 he comments, "Your haste to haggle and ask higher prices (in the market) has made you postpone your visit to the tombs"; on Ṣāliḥ's camel (11:70) he says, "One man alone killed the camel, and yet God enveloped the entire people in punishment, as he had enveloped them in grace (by sending a messenger)."²⁸⁶ "Indulgences" for reciting the Qu²rān, such as guaranteed forgiveness in exchange for reading Sura 36 at night, are attributed to him.²⁸⁷

Hasan Baṣrī counsels the strictest observance of ritual. But he demands that everyone precisely control all actions, not ritual alone. For him, the essential thing in an act is the intent (niyya), 288 which must be purified (ikhlāṣ) of vainglory (riyā). Hasan puts the spirit before the letter, the sunna before the fard; his teaching, rooted in morals, blooms into an ascetic method of introspection. I have elsewhere examined his famous solution of the mixed legal status of the fāsiq (the believer guilty of a grave offense), whose sin suspends him, making him susceptible to damnation like a hypocrite (munāfiq), until he has repented; Wāṣil and the Muctazilites found a weaker solution, putting the fāsiq in a state of neutral equilibrium in which his heart has the freedom of complete indifference. 291

Hasan does not possess the traditional list of five farā²iḍ (established by Shāfi^ci), but at least he recognizes, in addition to the shahāda, which is intended for God, eight canonical social obligations,²⁹² "about which there

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282. According to Abd al-Wahid ibn Zayd (Passion, Fr 3:172-73, 178/Eng 3:159-60, 166).
283. According to what Ibn Hanbal says (Radd, f. 2b).
284. Cf. his prayer taken from Qur. 12:38 (Murtadā, Munya, 15).
285. Nöldeke, Gesch. Qur., 273.
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^{286.} Jāhiz, Bayān, III, 69 (cf. risāla said to be Hasan's), 67.

^{287.} Since it contains the verse of the "flat."

^{288.} The hadith at the beginning of Bukhāri's Sahih: "Certainly works depend upon intent." even if "intent" is taken in the Hanafite sense of "premeditation of a ritual gesture," seems to be an echo of Hasan's statement, given herein (see below; n 299 and related text), "The intent is more effective than the work."

^{289.} Passion, Fr 3:161, 164, 167-68/Eng 3:149, 152, 155.
290. Improved from that of Abū Bayhas (d. 94; Mubarrad, Kāmil, II, 179; Brünnow, Charid-schiten, 30-31).

^{291.} Passion, Fr 3:188-91/Eng 3:176-79; Tabarl, III, 2489; Jābiz, Bayān, III, 69; Kilāni, Chunya, I, 80; Farq, 97; Murtaḍā, Munya, 23; Sha^crāwi, Tab., I, 29.

^{292.} Ibn Batta Ukbari, Sharli.

is to be no discussion with innovators (sāhib bid^ca): the fast, prayer, the pilgrimage, the spiritual retreat at Mecca (^cumra), alms, holy war, barter (sarf), and arbitration (^cadl)." He places the ^cumra on the same level as the hajj; he establishes the rituals of shuf ^ca and ghusl. ²⁹³ He declares that legal sanctions cover sodomy and gives a supporting analogy (hadd al-lūṭī = hadd al-zānī), the oldest example of a syllogism (qiyās) in Islamic law. ²⁹⁴ He is very strict on the rules governing legal marriage (nikāh), and he tries to make Farazdaq divorce his wife. ²⁹⁵ For his disapproval of mixed gatherings, at which the poets of Baṣra used to meet in the company of married women, Ibn Burd (d. 167) calls him a qiss ("priest"). ²⁹⁶

His spoken rules for the correct ordering of daily human contact in the communal life (mu^cashara) were codified later by either the Bakriyya²⁹⁷ or the Sūfiyya. The rules taught both groups that at all times the din (practice of religion) should include not only the canonical works but also certain ascetic restrictions (on eating) and works of mutual brotherly aid. For example. Hasan said to a man who wanted to leave a funeral procession because he saw that weeping women were approaching (the lament is a blameworthy innovation), "If you deprive yourself of a good action every time you perceive a sin, how can you make quick steps in religious practice. (dīn)?" 298 For Hasan, adab is more important than fard, "intent is more effective (for salvation) than works."299 "It is because the believer thinks well of God that his works are good; it is because the hypocrite thinks ill (sū² al-zann) of God that his works are evil."300 Therefore he held the doctrine, which was answered sharply by the Ibadites, that it was very important for a dying man to say the shahāda.301 Lax Muslims later drew from this recommendation (to put all confidence not in one's own works but in final thoughts of God) 302 the illusory and expedient Murji 2 ite "justification by faith." That thesis is very far from Hasan's thinking; for him faith is vacillating and intermittent; it must be revived constantly in the heart³⁰³ by explicit acts of submission to God, such as the one with which he used

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293. Ibn Qutayba, Ta²wīl, 287, 251.
294. Haytham Dūti, Dhamm al-liwāt; Qāsimī, Majmū<sup>c</sup> mutūn uṣūliyya, 21 n 3, 120 n 4.
295. Tabati, III, 2493; Aghānī, XVIII, 14, 47.
296. Aghānī, III, 34.
297. Farq, 201; Ibn Qutayba, Ta²wīl, 179.
298. Jāḥiz, Bayān, II, 39.
299. Qīti, II, 152.
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^{300.} Hilya. The hadith quoted by Nabhani (Jāmi', no. 30) deforms the saying as follows: "I conform to what my servant thinks of Me: if he thinks well, the good is his; if he thinks ill, the evil is his."

^{301.} His words to the dying Jabit Ju^cst (in 96), in Shammakhi, trans. Masqueray, 182 n.

^{302.} Who will come forth as a Judge of the separated soul (cf. Passion, Fr 3:246-47/Eng 3:232-33).

^{303.} His resulting theses of necessary istithuā (lḥyā, I, 91) and of tafāil al-faqīt (Passion, Fr 3:100-101 notes/Eng 3:89-90 notes).

to end meetings: as Ibn ^cAwn reports, after telling a parable, Hasan would make it understood ($bi'l ma^c \bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$)³⁰⁴ by means of the concluding invocation, "O God, see in our hearts associationism, pride, hypocrisy, vainglory (of the eyes and ears), confusion, even doubt in Your religion! O Transformer of hearts, strengthen our hearts in Your religion,³⁰⁵ make of our rites a true Islam!"³⁰⁶

Hasan took this position against two series of adversaries. First, against the routine and the blindly emotional pietism of certain Hashwiyya traditionists. He clearly disapproved of their qiṣaṣ, parables, when these became emotive sessions and chanted oratorios (samā^c); also their litanies (awrād) not based upon the Qur³ān but composed according to personal taste, and their prolonged visits to cemeteries (qubūr). With sarcastic irony, he expressed mistrust of anything not rationally justifiable. Ibn Qutayba reports that, with Hasan present, one muḥaddith, Abū Salama ibn ʿAbd al-Raḥmān, recounted the tradition, "according to Abū Hurayra, that the sun and the moon, on the Day of Judgement, would be turned upside down in Hell, like two bulls at the slaughterhouse!" Hasan said simply, "For what sin?" The traditionist insisted, "I have this on the Prophet's authority!" Hasan was silent, but the congregation was saying as one, "But Hasan is right. For what sin?"

It was Hasan's principal polemic to attack the pharisaism of the doctors of the law, fuqahā, whose knowledge and works were devoid of all sincere intent; Farqad Sinjī recorded his invective against these frauds.³⁰⁸ For Hasan, knowledge of the Qur³ān was not an end in itself but a means to live better. "Faith is not an ornament to wear or a fashion to follow; it is what the heart venerates, it is the truth confirmed in our acts."³⁰⁹

No man has true faith as long as he allows himself to reproach others for a fault he commits, or to decree for them a reform he has not adopted within himself. If he makes the decision, if he begins, there is no reformed fault that does not make him discover another offense to reform within himself. If he makes this resolution, he will concentrate on his own concerns, and not on the faults of others. 310

The latter statement is not merely psychological analysis. It has moral

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304. Ibn S2<sup>c</sup>d, VII, 115.
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^{305.} This saying became a hadith.

^{306.} Ibn Sacd, VII, 128.

^{307.} Ibn Qutayba, Ta³wīl, 121. The muladdith, Abū Salama ibn 'Abd al-Raḥmān, was the grandson of Ibn 'Awf (parallel story in Goldziher, Richt., 68 with Ka^cb in the role of Ibn 'Awf sic: Massignon must mean "the role of Abū Salama"] and Ibn 'Abbās in that of Ḥasan).

^{308.} Qut, I, 153; attenuated ap. Iliya, III, 272, and Awarif, I, 63.

^{309.} Famous statement [Recueil, p. 4], later attributed to Abū Bakr; the Wahhābīs used it.

^{310.} Jahiz, Bayan, III, 70.

range; its intellectual midwifery is authentically Socratic and gently leads the hearer to the threshold of an examination of conscience. It is the link to Hasan's ascetic and mystical doctrine.

- -"You would you be satisfied with the state ($h\bar{a}l$) in which you are now, if you were in it when death surprised you?"
 - "No."
- "Do you struggle with yourself, do you strive to move from this state to another, in which you would be well disposed towards death, in case death were to come?"
 - "Certainly I do, but not seriously."
- "After death, is there another place (besides this world) where you could ask for mercy?"
 - "No."
- -"Have you ever seen a sensible man satisfied with himself in the condition that satisfies you now?"311

D. His Ascetic and Mystical Doctrines

Hasan begins with disdain for this passing life and this perishing world, because the Prophets disdained it, and because God disdains what He has created separate from Himself.³¹² "Be with this world as if you had never been in it, and with the next as if you were never to leave it." "O man, sell your present life for your life to come, and you will earn both lives; do not sell your life to come for your present life, for you would lose them both."³¹³ "God has put at his creatures' disposal three things,³¹⁴ which have become objects of their rejection (tara³ik), but without which neither the prophets nor the solitary men (ahl-al-inqitā²) would gain from their stay in this world. They are hope, death (ajal), and the night vigil (sahar)."³¹⁵ "What do you think of this world? Encountering its sorrows has prevented me from tasting its delights."³¹⁶

His rule for living is characterized by scrupulous denial (wara^c)³¹⁷ and strict renunciation of all legally dubious actions (shubuhāt); more than that, it is asceticism (zuhd), a complete and universal abandonment of the world and all that perishes. In the self this is translated into continuous sorrow

^{311.} Ibid., III, 72 [Recueil, p. 5].

^{312.} Cf. the statement of Abū'l-Dardā quoted above [see n. 109 and related text], which is used again in the risāla said to be Hasan's (Hilya).

^{313.} Jāḥiz, Bayān, II; 34; III, 68.

^{314.} Ibid., III, 86.

^{315.} Saying taken up by "Utba: "Hope and the night vigil are two exceptional graces for the sons of Adam."

^{316.} Versified by Abū'l-Atahiya (Diwan, 169).

^{317.} Opp. tam^c.

(huzn);* Thawri learned from Yūnus that "Ḥasan was invaded by sorrow." "Continuous sorrow in this world is what makes a pious act fertile (talqiḥ)," he used to say. In addition to the scrupulous renunciation (warac) that is the basis of religious ritual (aṣl al-dīn),318 Ḥasan recommends fear (khawf) of God, because "nothing develops piety better," and attentive listening to the divine word (istimāc,319 a "science that can be learned"). Then he lays the foundations of the "science of hearts" (cilm al-qulūb) or mystical psychology. The introduction of the notion of hāl, mental state, has been discussed above; Ḥasan also perceives the two motive forces of free choice (khāṭirān), the two types of suggestion (waswās),321 and the two stable forms of a decision taken (hamm). His definitions of the examination of conscience (muḥāsaba)323 prepare the way for Muḥāsibī's: "The examination on the Day of Judgment will weigh lightly on those who have examined themselves in this world."

When a believer suddenly comes upon something pleasing to him, he cries out, "Certainly you are pleasing to me, and I feel the need for you! Yet beware the ambush between you and me..." That is an examination before action. Then, when something has escaped him and he is taken aback, he says, "How could I have done that? Surely I shall never remove my guilt for it. No, I shall never come back to it, if it please God."

The constant operation of intellectual reflection (fikr)³²⁴ in the believer's life is Hasan's base. "Reflection is the mirror that makes you see what is good and bad in yourself."³²⁵ His sermons, which invite meditation almost entirely without the forming of sensuous images, are mostly calls to examine the conscience.³²⁶ His most famous sayings are quoted here:

i.

Ah! If only I could find life in your hearts! Men have become like specters; I perceive a murmur, but I see nothing that loves. Tongues are brought to me

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*"Attrition" in the religious sense. Massignon's translations for huzn are attrition and chargen or sorrow 318. Attat, I, 27.
319. Jähiz, Baydn, II, 154.
320. Passion, Fr 3:119-20, 168-69; 130, 118/Eng 3:107-9, 156-57; 118, 106.
321. In Tustari, Tafsir, 100.
322. Ghazāli, Iḥyā, 1I, 21.
323. Ibid., IV, 289.
324. Tirmidhī claims that Hasan even applied the Greek theory of the four temperaments to
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explain the influence of the fast on character (*Ilal, f. 2004).

^{325.} As quoted by Ibn ^cIyāḍ (in Iṭilya, s.n.). 326. His theory of tadhakkur (according to Ṣafadī, in Khūnsātī, II, 211).

in abundance, but I am looking for hearts. Your intellects go astray, seeking the butterflies of hell and the flies of covetousness.³²⁷

ii.

O son of Adam! Your religious life! Your religious life! That is your flesh and blood! O son of Adam! Glutton, glutton! You hoard and hoard wealth in the cellar of your house, you nourish your avarice, ride softened mounts and wear fine clothes... May God have mercy on the man who is not shaken when he sees the actions of the multitude! O son of Adam! You will die alone! You will enter the tomb alone! You will be revived alone and judged alone! O son of Adam, it is you that are watched here, 128 it is you that I accuse (now)!

iii.

Converse with your hearts and maintain them, for they are quick to rust. Humble your carnal souls, for they tend to raise themselves up.³²⁹

This semi-public teaching had immense resonance. Islam has never known more sober and beautiful sermons (khuṭab), and Jāḥiz, as penetrating a judge as there has ever been, describes them as peerless in his Bayān.³³⁰ An official khaṭīb, 'Anbarī, would soon found the art of Sunni homiletics on them. In comparison, the rasping, rebellious preaching of the Khārijites³³¹ displays superficial violence and hasty, shallow psychology. The sermons of the other mystics, Ṣāliḥ Murrī, 'Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd, Manṣūr ibn 'Ammār, and Kīlānī, employ various points of eschatology, visions either terrifying or seductive, in order to disturb the imagination and reach the will. Ḥallāj, in his speeches of 296/908, is a lover of God wishing to rejoice in Him "beyond joy," in a vulgar world that does not recognize such love. But Ḥasan's sermons are addressed to the listeners' intelligence alone, ³³² so that their will may be attracted; he succinctly and powerfully summons them to retire into themselves. ³³³ His

^{327.} Jähiz, Bayan, III, 69; Ibn cabd Rabbihi, clad, I, 287.

^{328.} Cf. the similar pronouncement of Mutarrif (in Ibn Arabi, Muhād, 11, 281).

^{329.} Jähiz, Bayān, 1, 162; var.: "Hold a tight leash on your carnal souls, which are escaping; resist them, for if you yield to them, they will drag you to ruin. Sharpen them (the word "hearts" is missing here) with recollection (dhike), for they are swift to lose their edge."

^{330.} Ibid., I, 162; III, 68-72. Cf. Tabart, III, 1400.

^{331.} Ibn cabd Rabbihi, clqd, 11, 138-39.

^{332. &}quot;The wise man does not concern himself with opinion; if his wisdom is approved, he praises God; if it is disapproved, he praises God" (quotation ap. Ghulam Khalil, Sharh al-sunna [and Recueil, p. 3]).

^{333.} Cf. his anecdotes: his four amazements (ap. Aṇār) [he was amazed by a child, a drunk, a mukhannith, and a woman]; the two tombs confused (Jāḥiz, Bayān, III, 76); his smile as he died (ap. Aṇār).

phrases are condensed judgments, robust and sinewy; he resorts to assonance (saj^c) only as often as the thought allows; he sacrifices nothing to style. Hasan is known to have had contempt for literary "inspiration,"³³⁴ the "satanic" instinct that pushed Farazdaq to sharpen his satires and Ibn Rabī^ca (d. 100) to sing of the physical charms of Qurayshī beauties.³³⁵

His sermons had consequences not only on morals and literature but also on the formation of dogma. For him the human personality is defined, essentially, not as a body composed of members but as a living, sapient heart (qalb). Here Ḥasan represents the beginning of Islamic spiritualism, soon to be clearly developed by Amr ibn Fā³id Uswārī.³³⁶ The problem of the creation of human acts is also addressed in the sermons. God invests men with their actions, but this investiture (tafwīd)³³⁷ becomes real and fertile only when men submit to the conditions of the covenant (mīthāq).³³⁸ "God does not punish³³⁹ in order (arbitrarily) to see His sanctions operate; he punishes infractions against His precepts." Therefore, the problems of arzāq and ajāl, and of qadar, are raised; I have shown³⁴⁰ that Ḥasan, after some vacillation, clearly repudiated the Qadarī doctrine that his Muctazilī disciples would later dilute and adopt. His pronouncements on the subject prepared the way for, but were not as distinct as, those of his mystic disciples, Miṣrī, Kharrāz, and Ḥallāj.

Between predestination and responsibility, between decree and precept, there is an apparent conflict. For Hasan it can be resolved by creating within oneself a special mystical state, ridā, reciprocal acceptance and contentment between God and the soul. Ridā is the name given in the Qu³rān to the "state of grace" sought by the old Christian monks in their rahbāniyya (monastic life). This search for the perfect life before death made Imāmīs indignant. Abū Ḥamza Thumālī describes Imām Zayn al-ʿAbidīn's irritation at seeing Ḥasan lay a claim to the sanctity that the Imāms considered their privilege.³4¹ An extremely important hadīth qudsī of Ḥasan, transmitted by ʿAbd al-Wāhid ibn Zayd,³4² says,

^{334.} Aghānī, XVIII, 33; Yāqūt, Udabā, 11, 389; Tagrib., 275, 299.

^{335.} The only two lines of poetry later attributed to him are in fact by Mu^crüf and Abū'lcAtāhiya (Dīwān, 96; cf. Aghānī, XVIII, 14; XIX, 15).

^{336.} Passion, Fr 3:23/Eng 3:16.

^{337.} Bāqir, ap. Tabarsi, līṣtijāj, 167-68, 210, 231, 243; Ibn Qutayba, Ta³wīl, 5; Baqlī, II, 213; Junayd, Dawā [Retueil, p. 4].

^{338.} The expression mithag al-sulama (copied from the Covenant of the Prophets) is used by Hudhayfa and Hasan (Ibn Sasd, VII, 115; Tabarl, III, 2490).

^{339,} Passion, Fr 3:130/Eng 3:118.

^{340.} Ibid., Fr 3:120-21/Eng 3:108-9; Yafic1, Matham, I, 69-72; Malati, 332.

^{341.} Tabarsī, Ihtijāj, 161.

^{342.} Hilya, in which he is mentioned as a gharib. Perhaps Malik ibn Dinar was already alluding to this hadith when he claimed to have read in the Torah (sic): "We have incited you to desire Us, and you have not desired Us..."

As soon as My dear servant's³⁴³ first care becomes the remembrance of Me, I make him find happiness and joy in remembering Me. And when I have made him find happiness and joy in remembering Me, he desires Me and I desire him, (^cashiqanī wa ^cashiqtuhu). And when he desires Me and I desire him, I raise the veils between him and Me, and I become a cluster of knowable things (ma ^cālimā) before his eyes.

Such men do not forget Me, when others forget Me. Their word is the word of the prophets, and they are the true heroes.³⁴⁴ When I wish to inflict a calamity upon the inhabitants of the earth, they are the ones I remember in time to spare the earth that calamity.

This hadīth deserves reflection. It established a gradation in the mystical graces and an experimental method of sanctification that would be filled out in detail by Ibn Adham, and especially by Hallāj. The word cishq, "passionate desire," is noteworthy. It was the only word allowed by Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd for speaking of God. He rejected the word maḥabba, "favorite love," as an unworthy Judeo-Christian survival showing too much confidence in divine "favor" ([ni mat Allah] Qur. 5:20). Mālik ibn Dīnār, Muḍar Qārī, and Miṣrī suggested the term shawq, covetous love; habb (taḥabbub, maḥabba) was nevertheless recommended by Abān ibn abī Ayyāsh, Yazīd Raqqāshī, the pseudo-Jacfar, and Rābica, and its triumph was sealed with Macrūf and Muhāsibī.

Here is another of Hasan's hadith: 347

Some servants of God can already see the elect who are in Paradise forever, and the damned tortured in Hell; these servants' hearts are contrite, their pains do not trouble them, their needs are light, their souls continent. They endure with patience, like a long rest, what few days they know are left to them. They pass the night in silent attentiveness ... awake (for prayer); tears run down their cheeks, and they implore their Lord, "Rabbunā! Rabbunā!" During the day they are restrained, knowledgeable, pious, experienced. When examined, they are taken for sick men, but it is not they who are sick. Or, if they are indeed stricken by a disease, it is the disease of meditation on the next world, which has struck deep.

E. His Posthumous Influence

The attacks against Ḥasan Baṣrī began during his lifetime. Among Sunni moderates, even Ayyūb Sikhtiyānī, a disciple and friend, once capriciously

^{343.} Diminutive: Hasan liked to use such names (Furaygid, Muwaylik).

^{344.} Text: abiāl. Should this not be corrected to read abdāl? Cf. ch. 1, sec. 2, under BDL.

^{345.} Passian, Fr 3:48, 218/Eng 3:40, 206.

^{346.} Ibn Taymiyya, in ms. Damascus Zah. tas 129, sec. VII.

^{347.} Preserved by Zayadi. Quoted from the Hilya.

said that Ḥasan had split from the Qadarīs "on my advice, from fear of the police." Ḥamīd Khuza^cī notes that the caprice was "regrettable for Ayyūb."³⁴⁸ Indeed, it was simplistic and fatuous. Ayyūb also criticized some of Ḥasan's isnād.³³⁴⁹ Like Muṭarrif, he rejected Ḥasan's thesis of "the superiority of poverty."³⁵⁰ Yielding to Abū Qulāba Jarmī's (d. 104)³⁵¹ exhortations on the subject, Ayyūb decided that it was necessary to find a trade, because "ease alone procures tranquility of spirit."³⁵²

Muhammad Ibn Sīrīn (d. 110), another notable Sunni,³⁵³ a castrator of sheep by trade,³⁵⁴ disagreed with Hasan on many points. Ibn Sīrīn would not admit that a grave sin could put a believer in danger of damnation (ashadd raja²an, as opposed to wa^cīd, khawf, according to Ḥasan);³⁵⁵ he tolerated taqiyya in case of danger (as opposed to Ḥasan's naṣh, iḥtisāb);³⁵⁶ he condoned certain purely emotive devotional practices, anecdotes (qiṣaṣ),³⁵⁷ visions (nu²yā), prayers in cemeteries, litanies (awrād, sing. wird),³⁵⁸ oratorios (samā^c); he rejected only artificial ecstasy accompanied by loud exclamations. Ḥasan condemned all of these things together as bida^c (heretical innovations).³⁵⁹ We have already discussed Ḥasan's polemic against Ibn Sīrīn on the respective merits of ṣūf ³⁶⁰ and quin. In meetings (majālis) where Ḥasan spoke, the only subject was the life to come. Ibn Sīrīn led discussions³⁶¹ of historical traditions (such as the anecdote about ^cUdhrī love told by Ayyūb),³⁶² and his pietism bears no trace of the mystical desire for the divine perfections that explodes within Ḥasan.

Mālik pronounced in favor of Ibn Sīrīn, whom he greatly admired, and against Hasan, "whom the Qadarites led astray." 363 Ibn Hanbal, less preju-

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348. Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, VII, 122.
349. Ibn Qutayba, Ta<sup>3</sup>wil, 93, 120.
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350, Ibid., 211.

352. Who left him four recommendations: "No individual ra³y in tafsīr; excommunicate the Qadarites; be silent about the Companions (see Passion, Fr 3:223 n 6/Eng 3:211 n 261); allow no heretics among your listeners, for they would denature the meaning of your words" (Ibn Baṭṭa ʿUkbatī). This is the same Abū Qulāba whose authority is invoked by Ibn Saʿd (via Hammād ibn Zayd) for the phrase, which the Prophet is supposed to have said to ʿUthmān ibn Maẓʿūn, opposing lianīfiyya samla to rahbāniyya (see above, n 37–38 and related text).

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352. Ibn Qutayba, Macārif, 228.
353. Ibn Sacd, VII, 140-50.
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355. Ibn Sacd, VII, 144.

356. Ibid., 118; Ibn Khallikan, I, 140.

357. Hāji Khalifa (s.v., zuhd) remarks that Ḥasan was not a qāṣṣ.

358. Qñt, I, 81.

359. Qit, i, t49; Ibn Sa^cd, VII, 128 (against raising the voice or stretching out the hands during prayer).

360. See above, n 75-77 and related text. Ibn Sa^cd, in contrast, has Hasan condemn the siff (VII, 123); obviously a polemicist's invention (Muhāsibī, Ri^cāya, 111a).

361, Ibn Sacd, VII, 121.

^{354.} Ma3lūf, ap. Muqtabas, VI, 316.

^{362.} Sarrāj, Maṣāric, 8; Ibn Qutayba, Tabuil, 411.

^{363.} Tabati, III, 2492.

diced, recognized that "Hasan never doubted the divine predetermination of all calamities (muṣība)"; ³⁶⁴ Hasan would then be the father of the semi-Qadarism professed by Ja^cfar and Ibn Sālim. I think we can go further and state ³⁶⁵ that his supposed Qadarism is a legend, which his Mu^ctazilī disciples and Hashwiyya adversaries collaborated to invent.

He was reproached by the Khārijites, "who hated him," because of his disdain for their pragmatism (tafḍīl al-niyya; shahāda), his solution to the problem of the fāsiq, and his condemnation of all their rebellions.

The Imamis reproached him³⁶⁷ for his criticisms of ^cAli's policies; his "neutrality" between ^cAli and Mu^cawiya; his thesis that the dead of both parties (^cAli, Talha) in the "Camel War" were damned;³⁶⁸ his requirement to practice "fraternal correction" (wa^cz) , as opposed to their "permitted dissimulation" $(katm\bar{a}n)$; his mystical doctrines of $nd\bar{a}$ and $tafw\bar{a}d$; his "concessions" to the Qadarīs and Jabarīs (which he did not make).

Not Hasan, but his disciples, were persecuted by Hashwiyya and Mā-likite Sunni literalists for guiding ideas concerning the importance of meditation (fikr) in the religious life, and the reciprocal love (khulla) to be desired between God and the soul. Not daring to accuse Hasan directly, they maintained an acrimonious reserve for this great man, the patriarch of Islamic mysticism, whom Abū Ṭālib Makkī compares to Abraham.¹⁶⁹

The people did not forget him. The Islamic orders of the following centuries called him their founder and the *ghawth*³⁷⁰ of his time. The trade brotherhoods made him their seventh shaykh³⁷¹ and even, at times, their *pīr*.³⁷²

His disciples may be classified under three headings:

i) The mystics, those I believe to be the most faithful interpreters of his thought: Ibn Wāsi^c, Farqad, Abān, Yazīd Raqqāshī; Ibn Dīnār; Bunānī and Ḥabīb ^cAjamī. Then, at one remove, Ibn Dīnār's students: ^cUtba (d. 167), Rabāh, Rābi^ca, and especially ^cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd.³⁷³ In the third

^{364.} Yāfi^cī, Marham, 1, 72; on the antithesis iṣāba-khaṭā, see Passion, Fr 3:126 n 3/Eng 3:114 n 115.

^{365.} Hasan considers that Adam's sin was foreseen (Yafici, Marham; 1, 70).

^{366.} Ibn Sa^cd, VII, 127; see above, n 256 and related text. Ahnaf ibn Qays had also been against them.

^{367.} See above, text and notes at n 259 and n 341.

^{368.} Ibn Shādhān.

^{369.} Qill, I, 149. See the very penetrating judgement on Hasan and Muhasibi (cf. Passion, Fr 2:370 n 1/Eng 2:352 n 109) by J. Leo Africanus.

^{370.} Attar, Pavet trans., 29.

^{371. &}quot;Ubaydallah Rifa"I, Kitāb al-futuwwa (written in 1082 A.H.).

^{372. &}quot;Pir al-mashā ikh" according to the chant of initiation into the trade (zajal fi'l-shadd, in Bouriant, Recueil de chansons, popular Arab songs, 1893, 5-7). The Yazldi sect makes him their Shaykh Sin, perhaps identifying him with the ancient Semitic god of the Moon.

^{373.} See below, sec. 5. A.

generation, Ibn Zayd's students: the Bakriyya theological school, founded by his nephew and two eminent thinkers, the theologian Wakī^c and the mystic Dārānī.

- ii) The Mu^ctazilis, with their precursor, Abū'l-Khaṭṭāb Qatāda ibn Di^cāma Sudūsī (d. 117), and their two founders, Abū ^cUthmān ^cAmr ibn ^cUbayd ibn Bāb (d. 143) and Abū Ḥudhayfa Wāṣil ibn ^cAṭā Ghazzāl (81-131). The overly famous legend according to which Ḥasan, in the manner of a village pedant, solemnly pronounced the excommunication of one or another of these three "dissidents" (mu^ctazila),³⁷⁴ seems to be derived from a false etymology.³⁷⁵ If such an event had occurred, neither Qatāda³⁷⁶ nor ^cAmr could have continued to consider Ḥasan³⁷⁷ his master.³⁷⁸ Finally there is Wāṣil, whose young age (twenty years) at the time of Ḥasan's last sermon suffices to refute the anecdote about him.³⁷⁹ On three fundamental points, the Mu^ctazila strayed from Ḥasan's teaching: fāsiq munāfiq, amr distinct from hukm, tafāl al-niyya.
- iii) Some Sunni muḥaddithūn: Ayyūb Sikhtiyānī (d. 131), and Ḥammād ibn Salama (d. 165), who was the teacher of 'Abd al-Karīm ibn abī'l-'Awjā (d. 167), an unusual, original mind. Ibn abī'l-'Awjā abandoned Ḥasan's doctrine, then briefly became a disciple of Ja'far; 380 it is said he died a skeptic. To justify abandoning Ḥasan's doctrine, he would say, "My teacher was an eclectic, sometimes a Qadarī, sometimes a Jabarī; I do not think he ever adopted a firm doctrine." 381

Hasan Baṣrī is the author responsible for several statements that now have the force of law in Islam. Taken for hadīth of the Prophet, they were incorporated into the Ṣihāḥ: "Yā muqallib al-qulūb"; "Kull cāmm tardhilūna"; "Tarjīh midād al-culamā"; "Man cashiqanī." 182

4. The Tassir Attributed to Imam Jacfar 383

A. The Current State of the Textual Problem

In third-century "Sufi" mystic circles in Kūfa and Baghdad, some moral

374. The opposite story is also told: Hasan puts his Hashwiyya listeners "in penitence" (Alūsi, Jalā, 236).

375. They "split from us" on the question of the fasiq. The true etymology is ictizal bayn almanzilatayn (Passion, Ft 3:189 n 6/Eng 3:177 n 37).

376. Who had first said, "fasiq = munafiq" (Mustada, Munya, 23).

377. Makki, Qñt, I, 106.

378. Ayyūb put Amr ibn 'Ubayd on the index, as, in imitation of him, did Abū Ḥanīfa, Ibn al-Mubārak and Mālik (Ḥarawi, Dhamm, 127a).

379. Steiner, Mutaziliten, 25.

380. See below, p. 141.

381. Tabarsī, Ilstijāj, 172 [Recueil, p. 4].

182. Cf. ch. 3, sec. 5. B.

383. Abū Abdallāh Jacfar Şādiq ibn abī Jacfar Muhammad Bāqir, b. 83/702, d. Medina, Shaw-

hadīth attributed to the sixth Imām, Jacfar 184 (d. 148), giving mystical explanations of various obscure points in the Quorān, began to circulate. In the following century they would come to constitute a musnad min ṭaña ahl al-bayt 185 (a body of sayings of the Prophet collected and conserved by his family), a grandiose title for hadīth that must in fact be marāsil, because, as the Ibādites remark, the fourth Imām had no opportunity to hear anything from his father. Yaḥyā Qaṭṭān and Bukhārī reject Jacfar's hadīth en masse; strangely, they are accepted by some rigid Mālikīs, such as clyād 186 (see below for an explanation). Ibn Ḥanbal also accepts some of them. 187

After Fudayl ibn clyād, 388 the first of the Sunnis to mention them is Dhū'l-Nūn Miṣrī, who claims to have received them, through Faḍl ibn Ghānim Khuzacī, from Mālik, 389 who is supposed to have received them from Jacfar himself, 390 This chain seems very strange, and the composition of the collection of hadīth is still mysterious. Its authority, thanks to Miṣrī's edition, was considerable. Sulamī, in the preface to his Haqā'iq al-tafsīr, speaks of Jacfar's commentary as "detached verses, arranged in no order," but he quotes numerous passages from the text established by Ibn Aṭā. 391

wil, 148/765. Ja^c far, a descendant of both ^cAll and Abū Bakr, is one of the only Shiite Imāms to be venerated in traditional Sunni devotional practice. The name ja^c fait was suggested for the Shiite religion in case Nādir Shāh's reconciliation had succeeded in permitting the placement of a fifth muşallä for Shiism, next to the four Sunni ones at the Ka^cba. The Sunnis accept the kutub aljaft, al-katf, under his name. The Zaydis have occasionally obtained this fifth muşallä (Snouck, Mekka, 1, 68).

^{384.} Among the hadith qudsi attributed to Jacfar, specifically among those he received from Jabir (who is buried at Madā'in in the same grave as Salmān and Ḥudhayfa) and transmitted to 'Abdallāh ibn Maymūn Qaddāh (Ḥilya, III, 202; Ictidāl, s.v.), there is one of considerable importance in dogma. In it, God says to the qabda mac'lūma (= the handful of matter from which He made all of the elect), "kūnī Muḥammadan, fa kānat," "Be Muḥammad,' and it became him." This word kūnī (Muṣṭ Yf. Salām, jawāhir al-iṇilāc... 'alā matn Abī Shujāc', Cairo, Tadāmun, 1350, p. 123) is the feminine of the Qur'ānic word kun (be=fiat); it is directed at the first of human creatures, the "white pearl" (duna baydā) of another ḥadīth, the ewigweibliches, the sign of Mary (cf. "Textes prémonitoires et commentaires mystiques relatifs à la prise de Constantinople par les Turcs en 1453," in Oriens, VI, Leiden, 1953, 10–17. It is quite remarkable that early Qarmathian doctrine sees the kūnī as the first divine emanation (Van Arendonk, De Opkonst... in Yennen, 1919, 304–6), while a Sufi like Mansūr ibn 'Ammār can make it a personification of the perfect houri of Paradise, "to whom the Creator of the human race said, 'kūnī, fakānat'" (ap. Sartāj, Maṣārī', 1301, 127, l. 14; note that Mansūr ibn 'Ammār, the rāwā of Abū Hāshim Kūfī, was the teacher of 'Alī ibn Muwaffaq [d. 265; Ḥūlya, 1X, 325]). The Qarmathians, on the other hand, see in it the Perfect Man.

^{385.} Passion, Fr 3:207 n 4/Eng 3:195 n 90; Dhahabi, Ictidal, s.v. Cf. can bacd ahl al-bayt, in Kharkushi f. 155b.

^{386.} This question is also linked to the strange (and ancient) mystical tradition according to which Mālik permitted the samā^c.

^{387.} Hanbal; 1, 77.

^{388.} Dhahabi, Huffaz.

^{389.} The founder of the Maliki rite.

^{390.} One of these, which Dhū'l-Nūn repeated to his disciple Rabi^ca ibn Muhammad Ta³i, claims that ^cAli was the only legitimate caliph of the rāshidūn (Dhahabi, I^ctidāl, s.v.). It is difficult to imagine Mālik transmitting such a Shiite hadūth.

^{391.} Parallel passages, ap. Baqli, 1, 48, 97, 107; 11, 304.

Hallai uses and develops important suggestions from the collection: from the lexical point of view, he adopts the use of the words mashi²a (and not irāda), mahabba (and not cisha), azaliyya and hulūl, and Hagg (as a name for God). 392 From the structural point of view, he uses the Qur anic exegesis of the divine name Nur (= munawuir) and Samad (= maṣmūd ilayhi), and the word ihdinā (= urshudnā ilā mahabbatika). 193 He takes up the parable of the twelve zodiacal houses of the soul, 394 and the dialogue-form of explanation of the via remotionis (tanzīh). Two passages of the Tawāsīn are inspired by these hadith: first, Hallai compares a saint reciting the Our an to the Burning Bush. Second, when he writes "blink an eye out of the where" (2:7) for the nocturnal ascension in which Muhammad "did not turn to look right or left" (6:2), he is developing Jacfar's statement, "He blinked his eyes to shield them from the (created) signs, trying to occupy them with God alone and not to turn (and look at) any detail of those signs," 395 There are texts of Jacfar on the nur muhammadiyya (al-Our an nusikha), on tajallī al-Qur'ān (tilāwa, forty-one anwār),396 and on tawba qabl cibāda,397 that prefigure Hallajian theses; according to Ibn Ayyash, Hallaj referred to a riwaya "min ahl al-bayt" justifying his rule replacing the haji with devotional acts. 398

It is not easy to determine which of these nwāyāt, in Sunni mystic circles, are in fact of the sixth Imām of the Shī^ca. I have briefly summarized Ja^cfar's biography in the notes.¹⁹⁹ We can only say that he must not be

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392. Passion, Fr 3:15, 130/Eng 3:8, 118; Baqlī, f. 156a, 265b. and on Qur. 2:160. 393. Passion, Fr 3:15, 145 n 1, 142-43/Eng 3:8, 132 n 65, 130. 394. Ibid., Fr 3:34 n 1/Eng 3:26 n 45. 395. Baqlī, on Qur. 17:1. 396. Passion, ch. 14, sec. IIIa, Fr 3:152, 15/Eng 3:139, 8; Baqlī, f. 265b. 397. Baqlī, on Qur. 1:4; 9:113. 398. Passion, Fr 1:585-86, 594/Eng 1:539-40, 547.
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399. In 122/739, the Shiite legitimists of Kūfa, refusing to lend armed support to Zayd, 05tentatiously seconded (rafida, secession) and declared Jaffar the one legitimate Imam. Jaffar himself broke with Abū'l-Jārūd, the confidant and editor of the tafsīr of his father Bāqir (d. 117), for being a partisan of Zayd. Jacfar then went to live in Medina on retreat. Surrounded by a more or less compromising circle of adepts, he was obliged on several occasions to disavow friendly interpreters of his thought. According to the orthodox Imamis, he designated four doctors of healthy doctrine, four pillars (arkān): Burayd ibn Mucawiya (d. 150); Zurāra ibn Acyan (d. 150), who later proclaimed Müsä the seventh Imam; Muhammad ibn Muslim ibn Rabāh; and Abū Baṣir. On the same authority, Jacfar is supposed to have given his blessing to the theologian Ibn al-Hakam and to have favored, to varying degrees, Mu'min al-Taq, Abū Mālik Hadramt, 'Alī ibn Mansur, and Ali ibn Yaqtin (b. Kufa 124, d. Baghdad 182, who edited his Malahim, Tüsy's List, 234). The orthodox accept Ja far's riwāyāt from Abān ibn Taghlib, Abū Hamza Thumāli, and especially Musaddal ibn 'Umar Ju'st. They claim he excommunicated several navis (Friedlander, II, 90). In contrast, the ghulāt Imāmis publish their riwāyāt of Jacfar on the authority of Abū Shākir Maymun (father of the founder of the Qarmathians) and Muhammad ibn Sinan Zahiri, a disciple of Musaddal. They affirm that Jacsar made Abu Shākir the tutor of his savorite son, Ismacil. There are reasons to wonder whether the orthodox were not wrong about the whole line: the divergent opinions of the above-mentioned doctors (Ibn al-Daci, Tabaira, 422-423); Abu Shakir's intimacy with Jacfar, which they [the orthodox] admit; the close relationship between the Qarmathian ibid ruled out, absolutely and a priori, as the source of these sayings of mystical exegesis, because they show extraordinary doctrinal coincidences with his fragments invoked independently by both orthodox Shiites and the Ghulāt (Nuṣayrīs and Druze).* For example: in cadl, the distinction between amr and mashī a; 400 on tawhīd, the use of tanzīh; 401 in al-furū c, the nonobligatory character of the hajj 402 and the calculated 403 determination (not empirical, with witnesses) 404 of the new moon; and finally, the condemnation of qiyās and ra y. 405

By whom was the corpus of these riwāyāt compiled? Perhaps by Jābir ibn Ḥayyān or Ibn abī'l-ʿAwjā (d. 167) The case for Jābir is that he dedicated his books to Jaʿfar; that one of his disciples in alchemy was Dhū'l-Nūn Miṣrī, the first editor of this collection; and especially that Jābir was called "al-Ṣūfī"⁴⁰⁶ and wrote books on asceticism.⁴⁰⁷ He (and not Harim ibn Ḥayyān) was probably the Ibn Ḥayyān denounced by the heresiographer Khashīsh Nasa³ī (d. 253)⁴⁰⁸ for vaunting an ascetic training of the senses comparable to "the gradual conditioning of a racehorse" (tadmīr almaydān), at the end of which the ascetic is "as insensitive to the bitterness of vinegar as to the sweetness of date custard" and can do anything with no fear of punishment, no constraint to observe the Law.

But the case for Ibn abi'l-'Awjā is strong, especially on textual evidence. He was a disciple of Ḥasan through Ḥammād ibn Salama; we know that Ibn abī'l-'Awjā modified Ḥasan's doctrine (his riwāyāt do not contain the words 'ishq and tafwīd, which Ḥasan uses). It is stated with certainty that he made and published a collection of Ḥadīth 409 (the name under which it was published is not known; perhaps "Ja'far"),410 and that

and the nafy al-m²ya professed by the orthodox, disregarding Abū Baṣir and Ibn al-Ḥakam, from the beginning of the third century; the Qatmathian Nūr Cliwī and Jacfar's Allāh Nūr, which are identical

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400. Passion, Fr 3:130/Eng 3:118; Nusayrī ms. Paris 1450, f. 12a.
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^{*}Nwyia comments, in the introduction to his edition (1968) of the Taßir, that Massignon here underestimates the "doctrinal coincidences": the two traditions, Shiite and Sunni, have preserved for all practical purposes the same work. Nwyia's lexicon of the Taßir accomplishes what LM carries out for Ḥallaj in ch. 1

^{401.} Passion, Fr 3:138 n 5, 147/Eng 3:126 n 7, 134.

^{402.} Ibid., Fr 1:209 n 6/Eng 3:197 n 114; and Makki, Qit, II, 117.

^{403.} Iltimās al-hilāl following the tables brought out by Ibn abī'l-'Awjā, under the name Ja'far (Farq, 25; Kindi, Qādīs, ed. Guest, 538 l. 37, 533 l. 23, 534 l. 20; Ibn Jubayr, 162 l. 11, 167; Ibn Sa'd, V, 21 l. 16). On Ja'far's opinion, cf. Maqrizī, Itti'az, 76 l. 14; Kindi, Qādīs, ed. Guest, 584 l.17; Ibn Taymiyya, Majm, al-rasā'il al-kubrā, 11, 157 (Goldziher); Ţabaṭaba'i, 'Unwa wuthqā, 419-21.

^{404.} Sunni method.

^{405.} Tabarsī, Iļitijāj, 185-86, 183, 179.

^{406.} Fibrist, 335: title of his Kitāb al-raļuma, Cambridge ms. 896.

^{407.} Sacid (d. 462), in his *Tabaqāt*, compares him to Muḥāsibī and Tustarī; cf. Ibn al-Qifti, 111, 127.

^{408.} Istigāma, ap. Malatī, 166.

^{409.} Farg, 25.

^{410.} With whom he was very close.

this collection had mystical tendencies and was often accused, in an apparent contradiction, of both *tashbīh* and *ta^ctīl*. Ḥallāj would have to respond to the same charge.⁴¹¹

B. The First Editor: Dhū'l-Nūn Misrī412

SOURCES FOR HIS BIOGRAPHY

Kindī mentions him in his $Ta^3r\bar{n}kh$ al-mawālī al-miṣnyīn. There are no extant biographies from Miṣrī's time, and the accounts by Ibn Khamīs and chtṭār are stuffed with invention. The Ṣarf al-tawahhum can Dhī'l-Nūn Miṣrī 13 by Abū Hurrä ibn Suwayd Ikhmīmī is lost. Later monographs include Kawkab durī fī tarjamat Dh. N. M. (ms. Ṭōpqāpū, 1378) and Suyūṭī's Sirr maknūn fī manāqib Dh. N. (ms. cAshir Eff. 2051).

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE

Abū'l-Fayd (var. Fayyād) Thawbān (var. Fayd) ibn Ibrahīm Miṣrī, called Dhū'l-Nūn,⁴¹⁴ was born at Ikhmīm in Upper Egypt, c. 180. Little is known of his life. Authentic details are missing about the circumstances of his and his brothers' vocations. His teacher of mysticism seems to have been Sa^C-dūn, of Cairo.⁴¹⁵

He learned certain hadīth with an isnād including Layth ibn Sa^cd, cAbdallah ibn Lahīca (d. 174), Ibn cUyayna (d. 198), and Ibn cIyād. (d. 187), but we do not know who taught them directly to Dhū'l-Nūn. Perhaps it was the enigmatic Fadl ibn Ghānim Khuzacī. Dhū'l-Nūn's works attest to his knowledge of the mystical literature of the time, including some of

^{411.} See Der Islam, 111, 251.

^{412.} See Hilya, 1X, 331-35; Ibn 'Asākir, V, 271-88. On his trial in Baghdād: Kindī, Qudāt Miṣr, 453. And Kattani, Fihris, 1, 234, for the monograph of Ibn 'Arabī. His mawā'iz were compiled by a Mālikl, Muḥammad ibn Qāsim ibn Yāsur (descendent of the saḥābī 'Ammār: Ibn Farhūn, 248). On his tomb [photograph in Essai], which is preserved in the Qarāfa, cf. Ibn al-Zayyāt (Kawākib sayyāra, ed. Aḥmad Taymur, Cairo, 1907, 233-38, and 109-10). Following Yf. Ahmad (1922), I studied the adjoining turba of Fakhr Fārisī, the Hallājian muḥaddith (d. 622 A.H.) who was Malik Kāmil's adviser during his interview with the rāhib (St. Francis) at Damietta. For centuries. Dhū'l-Nūn's tomb was one of the stages in the curious pilgrimages, in the form of a closed circle, which were undertaken in the great Muslim cemeteries, such as the Qarāfat Miṣr. The aim was to speed the arrival of Divine Justice, hoped for by the Martyrs of Desire. It should be noted that in the fourteenth century, popular legend had it that Dhū'l-Nūn was a contemporary and friend of Hallāj (Qūṣī ap. Sha'rāwī, Lawāq, I, 159); especially in Turkish poetry (Rev. Et. Isl., 1946, 72, 74, 76).

^{413.} Fihrist, 359.

^{414.} The man with the fish, like Jonah.

^{415.} Sarrāj, Masāric, 130.

^{416.} Dhahabi, I tidal, s.v.; herein, p. 139; Malini, 31.

Rābi^ca's poems, which he uses without naming the author. He traveled widely: to Mecca, Damascus, and the cells of the ascetics on Mt. Lukkām, south of Antioch. ⁴¹⁷ Summoned by the state's Mu^ctazilite inquisition, he courageously affirmed the "uncreated" character of the Qur²an. ⁴¹⁸ The Egyptian Mālikite faqīh ^cAbdallah ibn ^cAbd al-Ḥakam (d. 214) condemned him for his public teaching of mysticism. Towards the end of his life he was disturbed again: arrested, transferred to Baghdād, and interned at the Maṭbaq prison, where the Baghdād Sufis, notably Isḥāq ibn Ibrāhīm Sara-khsī, were able to visit him. ⁴¹⁹ Released by order of the caliph after a brief interrogation, Miṣrī came back to Cairo to die (in 245/856).⁴²⁰

HIS WORKS AND DOCTRINE

There are apocryphal alchemical and kabbalistic works under his name. His authorship of a "translation" of some hieroglyphs from Egyptian temples seems to be imaginary as well. Ibn al-Nadīm says that as a disciple of Jābir Dhū'l-Nūn wrote two treatises on alchemy, Rukn akbar and Thiqa, but these are lost. 421 I have not examined his Kitāb al-cajā ib in Cairo. 422

The only authentic extant mystical fragments of Miṣrī are sayings, parables, and anecdotes. Some were written down by his disciples in Egypt, like Muhājir ibn Mūsā and Aḥmad ibn Ṣabīḥ Fayyūmī, others by his admirers in Baghdād. Already in his lifetime, Muḥāsibī was citing him as an authority. ^cAlī ibn Muwaffaq and especially Yūsuf ibn Ḥusayn Rāzī (d. 301)⁴²³ propagated his fragments. Tirmidhī, in a gloss, treats one of his sayings as a hadīth qudsī.

Dhū'l-Nūn's rather complex doctrine attenuates the theses of cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd's school; nevertheless, the doctrine is more developed than Dārāni's attempt at conciliation. Miṣrī clarifies tafwīd,424 he uses the term hubb425 without hesitation, and he was the first to isolate the idea of macnfa clearly [sifāti'l-waḥdāniyya].426 But his fervent, detailed introspection

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417. Ibn al-Jawzi, Ṣafwa; Yāfi<sup>c</sup>i, Nashr. 11, 83.
418. Dhahabi, ms. Leiden 1721, f. 28a.
419. Mālinī, 32; Tagrib., 1, 753.
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420. The map of his tomb, his stela (Kusic inscription of the third century), the monument of his khādim, Ḥāmid (d. 634/1236), and the marsūma of the sultan Barsbay (838/1434) concerning his wasf were published by myself in 1911 (Bull. Inst. Fr. Arthéol. Caire). A mosque at Giza is dedicated to him; there is a cenotaph bearing his name in the Shūnīz cemetery in Baghdād.
421. Fihrist, 358; 355.

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422. Brockelmann, G.A.L., 1, 199, 521.
423. Ibn <sup>c</sup>Arabī, Muḥāḍ., II, 313, 315-16, 363.
424. Passion, Fr 3: 120/Eng 3: 108-9.
425. See above, text at n 346.
426. Passion, Fr 3:66/Eng 3:57; <sup>c</sup>Aṭṭār, 1, 126-27, 133; Ibn Qayyim, Madārij, 111, 220.
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is not supported by the philosophical method and dialectical force of, say, Muhāsibī. 427 Misrī's defining characteristics are the sumptuousness of his poetic allegory and the slightly overdone luxury of his metaphors; he excels at using these devices to mask bold propositions. As we have seen. 428 one of his parables, on the "pilgrimage of the spirit" to Mecca, outlines a Hallajian thesis. Another parable, of which there are two extant versions, 429 attempts to give a glimpse of the delights that the divine love offers to the soul, under the thin veil of declarations of love sung by a houri. The parable contains lines by Rābi^ca, as well as the passage, "(Drink) the wine of His love for you, as long as He is making you drunk on your love for Him," on which Tirmidhī comments. 430 In Dhū'l-Nūn's obviously allegorical tales, he shows adolescents at the end of the pilgrimage who suspend themselves, mad with adoration, from the veils of the Kacba, or who strain to hear the murmurs of love emanating from it. 431 These two examples reveal a perilous sentimental transgression by Misri, a love of mystical joy for its own sake.432

In rare moments, Dhū'l-Nūn abandons his intricate, precious style and makes brief, straightforward statements, such as this: "I desired to glimpse You, and when I saw You, I was overcome by a fit of joy and could not hold back my tears." "He alone comes back, who has not been to the end of the road. None who has achieved union has returned." But like the much later Kilāni, whom he resembles, he would rather paint grand allegorical pictures full of artistic nuance. E.g.:

The joys of the samā^c (spiritual concert) in Paradise: 435

I have read in the Torah of the pious, who believe, who walk in the way of their Creator and encourage obedience—I have read that these men will see the face of the Lord, for it is the highest hope of all sincere lovers to see the face of God. God will give them no greater grace in their assembly than the sight of His face. And I have learned that after the vision He will give them the grace of hearing the voices of the angelic spirits (rūhāniyūn) and David's

^{427.} Misrt is clearly anti-Mu^ctazilite (Baqli, I, 390); he acquits himself of the accusation of hulül (Passion, Fr 3: 181/Eng 3: 169).

^{428.} See ch. 2, sec, 2.B., "Convergence of Guiding Intention," "The replacement of the hajj ..."

^{429.} Sarrāj, Maṣāric, 180-81; Ibn Arabi, Muliād., 11, 69.

^{430.} Khātam, (Khatm), quest, 118.

^{431.} Cf. the tales of Salih Murri and Ibn Uyayna (Ibn Arabi, Muhad, II, 304, 279).

^{432.} Hallaj criticized both of them specifically (Passion, Fr 3:128-29, 1:589-90/Eng 3:116-17, 1:543).

^{433. [}Recueil, p. 16.] Abd al-Rahmān ibn Ahmad, Risāla fi'l-taṣawwuf, ms. Nacsan, Hamāh, acephalous. Cf. his comment on divine union, without going through the Prophet (Sarrāj, Lumac, 104). 434. Suhrawardi, Awārif, IV, 201.

^{435. [}Recueil, p. 16.] Published during his lifetime by Muḥāsibī (Maḥabba), whose source was Husayn ibn Ahmad Shāmī.

chanting of the Psalter. If you could see David! A special seat will be raised from among the seats of Paradise, and he will be permitted to sit upon it and make known the praise and glory of God, while all those around him in Paradise listen attentively: prophets, saints, rūhāniyūn, and mugarrabūn. Then David, with a tranquil heart, will begin to recite the Psalms, raising and lowering his voice and pausing, with every beautiful nuance of vocal inflection. In his chanting he will take the right measure of the phrases, maintaining what must be constant, varying what must change. And then the ecstasy will begin for those who are smiling in excess of joy. The Royal "I"436 will answer David, and the beautiful recluses of the castles (of Paradise) will acclaim the divinity. Then David will raise his voice to bring the joy to its height. When he has made his loudest voice heard, the elect of cIlliyun will raise themselves from their dwelling places (ghuraf) in Paradise, while the houris respond to David with songs of happiness from behind the veils of their apartments. Then the base of the chair will rise, the winds resound, the trees shake, and songs be exchanged. The King will expand the understanding (of the elect) to make their joy perfect. And if God had not decided in advance that their joy would last forever, they would die of happiness.

Miṣrī is one of the first propagators of samā^c sessions or "spiritual concerts," ⁴³⁷ and I have quoted the entire passage above to show that he deliberately weakens the idea of direct dialogue between the saints and God on the day of the ziyāda, a thesis Muḥāsibī clearly affirms.

As Sulami remarks, Miṣrī was the first to define and teach "the classification of the mystical states (tartīb al-aḥwāl) and the stages on the way of the masters of sanctity (maqāmāt ahl al-wilāya)."438 Dārānī had outlined the path of the mystics, but in Miṣrī it took the definitive form that would appear in Sufism's classical manuals. Other authors would add or suppress particular stages, but he established the idea of fixed steps for the sanctifying graces. Compared to Muḥāsibī's method of analytical introspection, with which the mystic can find ab intra a principle for subordinating one state of consciousness to the next according to his preliminary intentions, Miṣrī's theory relies upon a rather insufficient formal esthetic. Compared to the very rough, bare, ascetic push of a Bistāmī (the best example before Hallāj), who would search our acts for Him alone for Whom we accomplish them, Miṣrī's veneration of virtues for their own sake, and cultivation of ecstasy for its own sake, at least suggest that he was guilty of formalist idolatry. But his theory, clearer and at first more accessible to av-

^{436.} Huwa al-Malaküt (= the upper angelic world), implying a thesis that Muḥāsibī later makes explicit. Perhaps this is the "huwa!" of initiation ceremonies.

^{437.} He pointed out the perils of it (Passion, Fr 1:431/Eng 1:384).

^{438.} Sunan, ap. Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmiis, XI. Cf. Subrawardi, Awarif, IV, 252, 276.

erage mystics than the other two, had a broader influence. From the end of the third century, Tustarī and various Sufis of Baghdād were adopting Miṣrī's process of formal classification. ⁴³⁹ It would be amended and perfected by Wāsiṭī, Sarrāj, ⁴⁴⁰ Qushayrī, and Ghazālī.

Here is one of Misri's characteristic passages: 441

There were some men who, being faithful to God, planted the trees of their sins where they could see them and showered them with the water of their penitence; the trees bore the fruit of sorrow and regret; and they, the eloquent, the gracious in speech, the wise in God and His Prophet—they became madmen without madness, idiots without stuttering or dumb silence. They drank from the cup of purity, and the length of their suffering gave them patience.

Then their hearts began to burn for the Kingdom; their thoughts, to wander among the palaces and under the veils of the Majesty. They hid in the shadows under the portico of regret, and there they read the book of their sins. They made anxiety their own legacy to themselves, until, through complete abstinence ($wara^c$), they attained the summit of denial (zuhd). That is how the bitterness of renouncing the world became so sweet to them, and the hard couch so soft, that they won love of salvation and the way to peace.

Then their spirits were cast into the heights of Heaven, fell adoring into the gardens of Paradise, and plunged into the river of life. They closed the locks of anguish and crossed the bridges of desire; they stopped for the annihilation of knowledge (discursive knowledge) and drank from the ghadīr 442 of wisdom (the wisdom of union); they embarked in the ship of grace and opened their sails to the wind of salvation on the sea of peace, until they reached the gardens of Rest and the mine of Glory and Mercy. 443

And this prayer:444

O God, give us a place among those whose spirits have flown to the Kingdom; for whom the Majesty's veils have been lifted; who have plunged into the river of certainty; who have walked among the flowers in the garden of the pious; who have embarked in the boat of resignation (tawakkul) and unfurled the sail of the plea for intercession; whom the wind of love has blown to each port, nearer and nearer to the Glory, until they reached the coast of right intention

^{439. &}lt;sup>5</sup>Awānīf, IV, 253, 198. Miṣrī is considered a saint by the Sālimiyya (Makkī, Qūi, 11, 76). 440. Luna^c, 42.

^{441.} Yafici, Nashr, II, 334-35 [Recueil, p. 17].

^{442.} Allusion to the ghadir Khumm (Passion, Fr 3:42/Eng 3:34).

^{443.} The excessive esthetic care lavished on the comeliness of the images so reduces this itineratium mentis ad Deum that it almost resembles the "Map of the Land of Tender" drawn by a disciple of Honoré d'Urfé.

^{444.} Yafic1, Nashr, II, 335.

(ikhlās) and left their sins behind, carrying with them only their acts of obedience; and all this is through Your mercy, O You Who are most merciful!

5. THE END OF THE ASCETIC SCHOOL OF BASRA

A. Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd, Rabāḥ, and Rābica

At the beginning of the second century A.H., Muslim circles in Başra⁴⁴⁵ were characterized by intense religious fervor in exceedingly diverse forms, with no unity among disciplines or theological doctrines. Hasan's disciples would introduce these unities little by little. Even if they did not transmit precise oral "constitutions" (let alone a habit, a special garment, as it was later believed), the master's method was passed down. In the first generation, Mālik ibn Dīnār (d. 127)⁴⁴⁶ instigated an attempt to regularize the tradition. Antākī allows us to understand that Ibn Dīnār was reacting against certain ascetic excesses, especially inconsistency and exaggeration of dress: Abān's sometimes luxurious, sometimes repulsive clothing,⁴⁴⁷ and the ṣūf and chains of Ibn Wāsi^c, Farqad, and Cutba. Ibn Dīnār also reproached Abān for adding to the number of reassuring stories already in Hasan's tradition, on the acts of devotion that would obtain indulgences, just as he reproached Ibn Wāsi^c and Farqad for giving all their possessions to the community without a care for the future.

In the second generation, thanks to the powerful organizational mind of Abū **CUbayda **Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd (d. 177), 448 a unification of the school

^{445.} See Hariri, Magamat, L.

^{446.} Monograph on him by Ibn abl'l-Dunya (d. 281); extracts in Thaclabi, Qatla.

^{447.} Dhahabi, I'tidal; Huffaz, IV, 39.

^{448.} Not to be confused with the Zaydi traditionist Abd al-Wähid ibn Ziyad (d. 179). Ibn Zayd transmitted from Hasan Basri, whose true successor he is, two hadith of fundamental importance to Susism: (a) the hadith al-cishq (Hilya, VI, 165), "cashiqani wa cashiqtuhu," transmitted by Muhammad ibn Fadl ibn Atiyya Marwazi (d. 180) to Ibrahim ibn Ash ath, the khādim of Fudayl ibn 'lyad; (b) the liadith al-ikhlas (Qush., 113), transmitted by Hudhayfa to Hasan Basti, 'AW ibn Zayd, Ahmad ibn Atā Hujaymī, Ahmad ibn Ghassān Hujaymī Tamīmī (d. 240), Ahmad Yacqub Shariti, Ahmad ibn Bashshar, to Nasawi and Qushayri (cf. Kazarūni, Musaksalāt, 92-b). Note that Ibn Zayd's disciple Abū 'Umar Ahmad ibn 'Aṭā Hujaymī (d. 200; see Lisān, I, 221), who compared Abū Bakr to Abraham, was rejected by Zak. Sāji (student of Dāwūd Zāhiri, Lisān, I, 422) and by Ash ari (Maq.). One of Hujaymi's disciples was Muhammad ibn Zak. Ghilabi (d. 281), a friend of Ibn abi'l-Dunya, the teacher of the historian of Sufism, Ibn al-Acrabi (d. 341). Ibn Zayd trained Abu Sa^cid Mudar al-Qari (Hilya, VI, 156, 157, 160, 163, 164), who is quoted by Muhasibi and who transmitted Ibn Zayd's doctrine of the rulya to Kalabadhi and Ibn Manda through Salih ibn Muhammad Tirmidhī, Khalaf Bukhārī (d. 350; Lisān, II, 404; cf. Kalābādhī, Akhbār, 155b), Dawud ibn Muhabbir (author of the Kitāb al-aql), and Uthman ibn Umara (l'tidāl, II, 187). Ibn Zayd himself, admitted as a nawi, by Wakic, Muslim, Ibn abi'l-Dunya, Fudayi ibn Lyad, and Dārānī, is "weak" for Z. Sājī and Nasa³ī, and rejected (matrūk) by Bukhārī. Abū Bishr Hawshab ibn Muslim, who was older than Ibn Zayd, seems to have raught him about Hasan Basri (Hilya,

was almost accomplished. Ibn Zayd organized the community of cenobites at ^cAbbādān. He was a theologian and preacher, a leader renowned for effective holiness (mujāb al-da^cwa). In theology, he powerfully expressed the state of loneliness caused by a sincere mystical vocation: Many are the ways; the way of Truth is solitary/And those who enter the way of Truth are alone (afrād)."

He outlined the thesis that recitation of the shahāda had value only by a special divine favor: "Just as it is not permitted to alter the face of a coin, it is not permitted to recite the shahāda without the light of purification of intent (nūr al-ikhlāṣ)"; **5¹ he even outlined the doctrine of deification (ittiṣāf of Ḥallāj, takhalluq of Wāsiṭī), **5² in this hadīth: "God has 117 moral virtues (khulq); a man who has one of them may enter Paradise." **5³ Deferring to the theologians, he used only the words cishq and shawq (indicating desire) for divine love, not maḥabba (indicating consummation). **54

Here is a fragment from one of his sermons: 455

O brothers! Will you not weep from desire (shawq) for God? How could one who weeps from desire for his Lord be deprived of the sight of Him (one day)? O brothers! Will you not weep from fear of hell? How could one who weeps from fear of hell not be preserved from hell by God? O brothers! Will you not weep from fear of the bitter thirst that will seize you on the Day of Judgment? You do not weep? Ah, but you do! Weep then over the cool water of this world (which you seek too much), and perhaps your thirst will be quenched in the Dwellings of Holiness, with the best fellows, the Companions of the Prophet, the siddīqūn, 456 the martyrs, and the pious, for is there a better company than theirs?

He puts Jerusalem (and the fountain of Siloah) in the same rank as Mecca (and the well of Zamzam) and affirms that Khidr lives at al-Aqṣā. 457

VI, 199). One purported chain of congregational affiliation, in order to reach Hasan Başri (and even Kumayl ibn Ziyād, sic), includes 'Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd via Abû Ya^cqūb Sūsī (Qushāshī, Simṭ, 99), over a chronological hiatus. The chain ends at Najm Kubrā and the Chishtiyya (cf. Beaurecueil, Firkāwī, Cairo, 1953, 13).

^{449.} Imitating Sulayman Taymi, he observed a vow of chastity for forty years.

^{450.} Makkī, Qüt, I, 153.

^{451.} Ibn Arabī, Muļiād., II, 354. His nephew Bakr would retract the proposition ("ma²miin ft'i-ikhlāṣ mac al-ṭabc": Ashcarī, Maqālāt, £. 96a). Passion, Fr 3:246/Eng 3:232.

^{452.} Passion, Fr 3:142/Eng 3:130.

^{453.} Dhahabi, Ictidal, s.n.

^{454.} Passion, Fr 3:117-18/Eng 3:105-7.

^{455.} Hilya, s.n (following Ibn al-Jawzi's Safwa) [Recueil, p. 5].

^{456.} This is one of the oldest mentions of this term; Hasan Baştī used to say "ahl al-inqitat."
457. Maqdisi, Muthīr, ms. Paris 1669, f. 99, 121b. Zamzam visits Siloah on the night of 'Arasist (Yq. 111, 762 [s.n., 'ayn Sulwān]; Goldziher, M. St., II, 136) or 15 Shaban (Gaudefroy Demombines, Pèlerinage, 84).

Besides Ibn Zayd there were two of his contemporaries and friends. First, Rābi^ca, a simple freedwomen, a former flutist, then a convert, ⁴⁵⁸ whose brief extant fragments are filled with a love of touching vehemence. ⁴⁵⁹ She spent her whole life in Başra almost as a recluse, and died there ⁴⁶⁰ at the age of at least eighty, in 185/801. ⁴⁶¹ The fragrance of sanctity she left in Islam has still not been dissipated. Relying upon Qur³an 5:59, she did not hesitate to use the word hubb for divine love. She makes this commentary: ⁴⁶²

I love You with two loves, (self-serving) love, for my own pleasure And (perfect) Love, (desire to make a gift to You) of that to which You are suited!

In the love of my own happiness,

I am concerned only to think of You, to the exclusion of all others.

In the other Love, which is Your due,

(It is my desire that) Your veils should fall, and that I should see You!

There is no glory for me in one love or the other, No! But praise be to You, for one and the other!

This quatrain very concisely sets forth the duality of the soul's "two loves" for God: imperfect love (for personal enjoyment) and perfect Love (for the good of God, for His Glory for His sake alone); 463 she did not dare decide absolutely between the two. Hallāj would later make that decision in magnificent lines, 464 placing the hubb al-Madhkūr before the hubb al-dhikr, while the secular theoreticians of cudhrī love, like Hallāj's adversary lbn Dāwūd, would choose precisely the opposite solution. 465

Another of Rābica's sayings offers an answer to the question of the two

- 458. I had thought she was of Qays (Adaw.), but she is of Azd, of the clan Atik ibn Naşr ibn Shunuw. One of the leaders of the Azd at the Battle of the Camel was an Ataki. Consult Margaret Smith, Rābi a. Cambridge, 1928, and the texts collected for the first time by AR Badawi, in Rābi a shahīdat al-hubb al-ilāhī, Cairo, 1950. According to Brockelmann, as cited by Goldziher (in DI, 1918, 208), Ibn al-Jawzī wrote a Manāqib Rābi a al-mu tazila. Her apologue of the torch and the jug of water is well known (Aflākī, 310 [Recucil, p. 8], mentioned, oddly enough, by Joinville).
 - 459. Jāḥiz, Bayān, II, 85, III, 66; Sarrāj, Maṣāric, 136, 181; Attar, I, 60.
 - 460. Her tomb was visited by Muhammad ibn Aslam Tüst.
- 461. Not in 135/752, as it has been said in order to make her a student of Hasan. Proof: her well-known friendship with Rabāh; her meeting with Thawri, who came to Başra after 155; the anecdote of the marriage proposal from the 'Abbasid wali of Başra, Muḥammad ibn Sulaymān (wali from 145, d. 172; Qūt, II, 57). Some say she was born in the year Hasan began his preaching. (Perhaps they mean "began again," which would indicate the year 95 or 99.)
- 462. Qūt, II, 56 [Recueil, p. 6]. Margoliouth's translation (Early Development, 175), while philologically precise, does not bring out the dogmatic range of these lines.
- 463. Which Wensinck considers an esoteric doctrine (Dove, XXVII, LVII), though it has figured, since the Sermon on the Mount, in the humblest Christian teachings.
 - 464. Passion, Fr 3:129/Eng 3:117.
 - 465. Ibid., Fr 1:404-16/Eng 1:356-68; and Tawasin, 129, translated passage.

recompenses in Paradise; when she heard boasts about the created joys prepared there for the elect, she cried, "First the Neighbor! Then the house (al-jār! thumma'l-dār)." 466

When she was convalescing from a grave illness, she ceased to wake herself in the middle of the night for prayers; warned by the angels, she understood what she was missing, and recommenced. This anecdote recalls the one about CImran KhuzaCi. 467

The principal theses taught by her compatriot and friend Abū'l-Muhājir Rabāḥ ibn ^cAmr Qaysī (d. c. 180) are defined in a more studied, dogmatic form, which gave the theologians easier access. He introduced into dogma the following notions: ⁴⁰⁸ tajallī (lumen gloriae, to explain the vision of God, m²ya) at the Last Judgment (of which ^cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd had given powerful reminders); tafḍīl al-walī, the superiority of the saint (to the prophet, in a discussion of Qur. 18:76); khulla, or "divine friendship" (in memory of Abraham). In morals, Rabāḥ firmly condoned vows of chastity, ⁴⁶⁹ acts of contrition, ⁴⁷⁰ and pious visits to cemeteries. The traditionist Khashīsh Nasa³ī (d. 253) put him (with Kulayb) on a list of zanādiqa, for quietism. Nasa³ī tendentiously made the following claims about the two of them: ⁴⁷¹

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They say that when the love of God has overcome their hearts, desires, and wills to such an extent that it has supplanted all other things, then God is, before them, what they are before God. In such a state, they receive the divine khulla (= grace of permanent divine love). And God permits them to drink, to commit theft and adultery, and to indulge every other vice. Before God they are like someone who has the right to use his friend's property without permission. [Recueil, p. 7]

ii.

They say that the act of renouncing the world is a preoccupation for the heart; that the world, when an interest in it is aroused, seems greater and more attractive; that the heart is bound to consider good meals, pleasant drinks, soft clothes, and sweet perfumes, by the very act of renouncing these things. Such

^{466.} Ghazālī, Iliyā, IV, 224. Allusion to the proverb, "Test the neighbor before the house, and the companion before the voyage.

^{467.} See above, paragraph at n 130. Sarraj, Masaric, 136.

^{468.} Sha tāwī, Ṭab., I, 45; Ḥilya [Remeil, p. 8].

^{469.} Not content to practice it himself, he recommends it to others: "I heard Mālik ibn Dīnār say, 'A man becomes a siddig only if he leaves his wife in a state of widowhood and goes to live in the ruins among the dogs." [Recueil, p. 6].

^{470.} Istighta: "I have committed close to 40 sins, and for each one I have asked forgiveness of God 100,000 times" (Hilya).

^{471.} Istigama, extract, ap. Malati, f. 165.

men succumb to their desires as they occur, in order to develop contempt for them, so that the unworried heart may assign no importance to renunciation. [Recueil, p. 7]

These two propositions perfidiously deform⁴⁷² the thesis of saintly impeccability (i), and that of the superiority of the "converted sinner who no longer needs to struggle against temptation, over the converted sinner who must continue to struggle"⁴⁷³ (ii).

Here is an anecdote that underscores the nuance separating Rabāḥ from Rābica: 474

Abrad ibn Dirār of the Banū Sa^cd, a friend of Rābi^ca, asked Rabāḥ, "Do you find the days and nights long? — Why? — From desire to meet God?" Rabāḥ was silent.⁴⁷⁵ Uncertain of the cause of his silence, Abrad asked Rābi^ca, "Would he have said 'yes' or 'no'?" She answered, "I say Yes."

And another:

One day Rābi^ca was looking at Rabāḥ, who was holding a child of his family and kissing it. "Do you love him?" she asked.

- "Yes."

478. Farq, 200-201.

- "I did not think there was any space in your heart for the love of anyone but God, any place empty of thoughts of Him!"

Rabāh cried aloud and fainted. When he had come to his senses and wiped the sweat from his face, he said (to excuse himself), "Ah! It is a mercy that comes from Him, the love for small children that God has sown in the hearts of His servants..."

The posthumous condemnation of Rabāḥ and Rābica by the traditionists coincided with the spread of the disciples of cAbd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd. Bakr, Ibn Zayd's nephew, using a slightly attenuated version of his uncle's teaching, tried to construct a school of neo-Sunni mutakallimūn (nābitat al-ḥashwiyya), in order to free Baṣra from Muctazilite theological supremacy. He did not succeed. The interest of this ephemeral school, the Bakriyya, is that, like the later Karrāmiyya and Sālimiyya, it made a defense of orthodoxy based upon the experimental method of the mystics. Ibn Qutayba477 and Baghdādī 478 enumerated the Bakriyyan theses condemned

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472. Cf. hetein, ch. 3, sec. 3.
473. Passion, Fr 1: 132-33/Eng 1:92 [Recueil, p. 9].
474. Hilya, s.v.; Sarrāj, Maṣān<sup>c</sup>, 181 [Recueil, p. 6, also the following anecdote].
475. Like Muḍar Qārī on an analogous occasion (Muḥāsibī, Maḥabba): out of modesty.
476. Passion, s.v. index; v.s., text at n. 373.
477. Ta²wil, 57.
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by the heresiographers, some of which had already been made explicit in Hasan Başrī's teaching.⁴⁷⁹

B. Dārānī, Ibn abī'l-Hawwārī, and Antāki

The movement begun in Başra regained strength in Syria through Dārānī, 'Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd's principal disciple. Abū Sulaymān 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn 'Aṭiyya Dārānī, born in 140 at Wāsit, seems to have left Baṣra c. 180. He went to live at Dārāyā on the Damascus plain and died there in 215.480 Dārānī developed his teacher's conciliatory tendencies, explicitly stating that he had made the results of his own mystical experiments fit into the frames constructed by the theologians. He refused to announce his other results, even though some inner illuminations (nukat al-ḥaqīqa) had suggested that they were real.481 He was probably just being cautious when he declared a renunciation of personal exposure to public sanctions (against insistently drawing attention to his personal revelations) "from fear of taking pride in them";482 perhaps he did not feel called to martyrdom.

Opportunism led him to make many concessions. On the subject of abstinence, he concedes that, "eating fine meals is an incitation to contentment in God" (sic); 483 he propagated a hadīth that veils Rabāh's doctrine of the superiority of saints to prophets by concluding that John is to be preferred to Jesus. 484 Dārānī liked to paint seductive apparitions of celestial brides, desirable houris whose physical beauty is the materialization in Paradise of perfect virtues acquired in this life through tears and prayer; his formula describes an almost commercial transaction, and it pleased neither mystics 485 nor fuqahā; the latter expelled him from Damascus for describing visions (seen in a waking state) of angels and prophets. 486 Speaking for

^{479.} Fāsiq = munāfiq = mukhallad fi'l-nār.

^{480.} Dhahabi, ms. Leiden 1721, f. 180; Rifacl, Rawda, printed in Damascus, 1330, p. 95.

^{481.} Passion, Fr 3: 196/Eng 3: 184; Alusi, Jala, 62.

^{482.} Makki Qüt, II, 137.

^{483.} Ibid., II, 177.

^{484.} Asin, Logia D. Jesu, no. 31; Ibn al-Jawzi, Nanjis; cf. the bizarre sermon of Aḥmad Ghazāli (d. 517) on the "imperfect" poverty of Jesus [Retueil, p. 97]: "The angels came together at the ascension of Jesus; he sat, and his muraqqa awas torn into three hundred pieces; they said, 'Lord, will You not make a shirt without stirches for Jesus?' 'No. The world (into which he will go down again) does not deserve that he should have one.' Then they searched the undergarment of Jesus and found a needle. And God said, 'By My glory if that needle had not been there, I would have rapt Jesus into My innermost Holiness, and I would have been unsatisfied for him even with the seventh heaven; but you see, a needle has put a veil between him and Me'" (Ibn al-Jawzi, Qussas, f. 118). Must the hermit carry a needle? Ibrahim Khawwāş is praised by Ibn al-Jawzi (Talbīs, 339) for carrying one with him. Foucauld, in his rule of 1899, wanted not to have one (ch. 4, p. 78).

^{485.} Muhāsibi would dissociate himself from this (Tawahhum); Bisṭāmi would reprove it (Passion, Fr 3:177/Eng 3:164-65).

^{486.} Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmūs, XI.

himself, Dărāni told a story⁴⁸⁷ maintaining that the elect would see God face to face; Ibn abi'l-Hawwāri⁴⁸⁸ recounts:

One day I entered Abū Sulaymān's [Dārānī's] house. He was weeping, and I said to him, "What is making you weep?"

— "O Aḥmad, why shouldn't I weep? When the night deepens, when everyone's eyes are closed, and every friend is alone with the Friend, then lovers wrap their feet in their carpets (rolled prayer carpets) while their tears fall drop by drop. God takes pity on them and cries out, 'O Gabriel! By my Essence! Surely those who are contented by my word and comforted by thoughts of me—surely I shall follow them into their retreats, listen to their sobs, and take their tears into account! O Gabriel, announce to them, "Why those tears? Have you ever seen a Friend cause suffering in those who love Him?" How could I allow those who seek to please Me in the middle of the night to be punished? I swear by Myself, When they are summoned to the Last Judgment, I shall reveal to them My merciful face (wajhī al-karīm), so that they may contemplate Me, and I them."

The stages of the mystical path had been only vaguely defined by Hasan, Ibn Adham, 489 even Wakī^c. 490 In Dārānī they were formed into an invariable sequence of graces that adorn the soul. 491 He made the following outline (which Miṣrī would later establish) of the doctrine of the aḥwāl and maqāmāt:

(a) the Lord made them drink as they sat on the fringe of the carpet of Love; He quenched their thirst for the company of creatures by showing them the vision of the Truth; (b) then He sat them on the chairs of Sanctity, gave them the rare treasures of superabundance, and rained down on them the water of supernatural assistance (ta²yid); (c) then the streams of desire and vicinity flowed over them; (d) and after afflicting them with the tortures of separation, He revived them with the secrets of nearness.

In another parable, that of the damned ascetic Qārūn,⁴⁹² Dārānī explains that all apparent sanctity is precarious and may be revoked before death.⁴⁹³

^{487.} Which Ibn Adham attributed to John the Baptist.

^{488.} Qush. 18; diluted, without the author's name, ap. Iliyā, IV. 232. Also quoted by Ibn Qutayba, cUyūn, II, 297.

^{489.} Herein, ch. 5, sec. 2.

^{490. &}quot;Remembering the saints procures rahma." Let him who contemplates that saying know that there are servants of God from among his creation whom He has chosen for Himself; He has given His grace specially to them, He has rejoiced in His light in them; He has made war on them with His sword and killed them with His fear, giving them supreme martyrdom; it is their Lord Himself Who is their recompense and their light" (ap. Thablabt, Qatla, f. 4a).

^{491.} Baqli, II, 355.

^{492.} Shibli, Akām, 218.

^{493.} Passian, Fr 3:220/Eng 3:208.

Dārāni's favorite student, the editor of his parables, was Aḥmad ibn abī'l-Ḥawwārī ʿAbdallāh ibn Maymūn Thaʿlabī Ghaṭafānī, who was born in Kūfa in 164 and died in Mecca in 246. 494 His wife, Rābiʿa, is buried across from Jerusalem, 495 in the cave of St. Pelagia and the prophetess Hulda, which is attached to the Mosque of the Ascension. Ibn abī'l-Ḥawwārī was also a student of Ibn ʿUyayna, Anṭākī (v.i.), and ʿAbdallāh ibn Saʿīd, whose doctrine of the rūh is analyzed elsewhere. 496 During a long stay in Damascus (Junayd called him "the redolent mint of Damascus"), he was summoned by the government's inquisition and faltered, signing the Muʿtazilite statement on the "created Qurʾān." Finally, he was accused of teaching that saints were superior to prophets, 497 and he took refuge in Mecca.

While Dārānī and Ibn abī'l-Hawwārī in Damascus were reviving the memory of Ibn Adham's apostolate on Mt. Lukkam, new ascetic vocations were appearing in the area around Antioch itself. Two ascetics established there are the source of the first works mentioned by Kalābādhī. 498 which concern the culum al-mucamalat (i.e., the inner discipline of our actions, our rule for living). As in Muhāsibi's later works, information from the tradition is compiled in these. About the elder of the two ascetics, Abū Muhammad Abdallah ibn Khubaya Antaki, we know only that he came from Kūfa, was a Thawrite in law, a disciple of Yūsuf ibn Asbāt (d. 196), and one of Fath Mawsili's teachers. 499 There are extant works only of the younger of the two: he is Ahmad ibn cAsim Antaki, whom we shall call Antākī (d. c. 220). His friend Dārānī called him "the spy of hearts" (jāsūs al-qulūb)500 for his penetrating analyses of conscience. His works, edited by two disciples, Abd al-Azīz ibn Muhammad ibn Mukhtār Dimishqī and Ibn abī'l-Hawwārī, are of inestimable value because they give us a detailed early model, before Muhāsibī's codification, of the Islamic asceticism that was taking form. First, I shall analyze the extracts reproduced by Abū Nucaym in his Hilya.501

Anțākī expresses his love of meditation and solitude, his desire for penitence, and, especially, his desire for a knowledge of God that would be no longer simply the affirmation of His reality by faith (ma^crifat al-taṣdīq, aligrār) but the experimental wisdom of those who obtain a response from

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494. Dhahabī, ms. Leiden 1721, f. 5b.
495. Rifā<sup>c</sup>1, Rauda, 84. She was soon confused with Rābi<sup>c</sup>a Qaysiyya (Ibn Khallikān, 1, 201);
and she is still confused with her.
496. Passion, Fr 3:157/Eng 3:144-45.
497. Sulamī, Miļian, ap. Ibn al-Jawzī, Nāmūs, XI.
498. Ta<sup>c</sup>aruf.
499. Jāmī, 73; Sha<sup>c</sup>rāwī, Tab., I, 82. Also in Kalābādhī (Ta<sup>c</sup>aruf).
500. Ibn <sup>c</sup>Arabī, Muļiād., II, 339.
501. Ms. Leiden 892, f. 1722-177b [Recueil, pp. 12-13]. Ibn al-Jawzī reproaches Abū Nu<sup>c</sup>aym for having published them (Safwa, preface).
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Him (ma^crifat al-istijāba). That knowledge alone, which Anṭākī also calls il-hām min Allāh, brings happiness (ghibṭa). ⁵⁰² Purgation of secret sins is what brings one closest to God. There are useful sins, "those that you place before your eyes ⁵⁰³ in order to weep over them until you die, so that you sin no more. That is true penitence." There are hurtful acts of obedience, "those that make you forget your faults, that you place before your eyes for personal satisfaction, to shield yourself from the fear of what you have incurred for past sins. That is vainglory." ⁵⁰⁴ The true believers

speak few words to created beings, and they take pleasure in invoking their creator; their hearts are attached to the Kingdom of Heaven, and their thoughts are present at the terrors ($ahw\bar{a}l$) of the Day of Judgment. Their bodies are stripped with respect to created beings; they are blind and deaf to the world and its people and whatever is associated with the world for them. They seem already to see the next life: some have achieved this by effort ($ijtih\bar{a}d$), by denial of the flesh ($riy\bar{a}dat al-nafs$), by hunger ... 505

"I am in a time when Islam has returned to the exile in which it began; ⁵⁰⁶ a time when the description of the truth has been exiled. As at the beginning, the learned are attached to riches, and the pious are without instruction..." Anṭākī prefigures Muḥāsibī's reform; he deplores the ignorance of ascetics and tries to find a rule to guide them; he reasons, he contemplates a way to link the states of consciousness ⁵⁰⁷ by following the direction God Himself prepares for us, a direction that must be divined, not invented. "It is God alone who has created the means (asbāb) leading to goodness; without them, believers can achieve no goodness of action; the believers are separated from their sins when God has made these means reside in the hearts of those who love Him and act for His sake." ⁵⁰⁸

In addition to these two highly developed psychological analyses of spiritual "carelessness" and "ignorance," 509 Antākī wrote a strikingly original qaṣīda, 510 somewhat prosaic in form, in which he condensed the results

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502. Ms. Leiden 892, f. 172b. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206.
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^{503.} Taken up again by Misri (herein, text at n. 441.

^{504.} Ms. Leiden 892, f. 171a.

^{505.} Ibid., f. 173b.

^{506.} Ibid., f. 174a. Muhāsibī would present this thought, which is perhaps Antāki's, as a liadith.

^{507.} Ms. Leiden 892, f. 1752.

^{508.} Ibid., f. 174b. Anṭākī, who did not have Muḥāsibi's training in theology, was already dissociating himself from the Mu^ctazilite theologians on this point. He must have been attacked early, because one of his statements is attributed by Ibn A^crābi (d. 341: in Kitāb al-zuhd, ms. Cairo majm. 125, rep. 29) to someone else. The statement is, "liman lā yajib dhikruhu" (Ḥilya, f. 175 [1X, 291]: "uṭlub mā ya^cnīk bitark mā lā ya^cnīk").

^{509.} Ms. Leiden 892, f. 1762-b.

^{510.} Ibid., £ 1772-b.

of his ascetic experience, his science "at once traditional and inspired." In the poem, he describes the life and death of true Islam in men's souls, and the misfortune of present times:

... How Islam, at the outset, commenced;
Its growth into the fullness of its perfection;
And how it has faded^{\$11} like a worn garment ...
Aḥmad^{\$12} himself sang Islam's mourning chant^{\$13}
Like a man who laments the dead in his affliction.
Then praise be to God, who created me for Islam out of pure beneficence,
Making me a son of Adam, not a demon from among the jinn.
He led me to the Monastery of Aḥmad^{\$14}
And taught me what the perverse do not know,
Making me discern a light, or knowledge, a wisdom;
And, with all those who are grateful to Him, I thank Him.
And that is why I hope in Him, that He may not look towards
My weakness and my ignorance, my void, in His Fullness ...
[Recueil, pp. 13-14]

And this letter, to a friend:

God! Listen, as I speak to you on His behalf. God raises up the humble not by the measure of their humility but by that of His generosity and bounty. He consoles the afflicted not by the measure of their sorrow but by that of His kindness and mercy. And so, because the Clement and Merciful witnesses His love even to those who wrong Him—who can foresee what He will do for those who have been wronged in Him?!⁵¹⁵ Because the Pardoner, Merciful and Generous, turns to those who make war against Him—who can foresee what He will do for those against whom war is made for His sake?! Because He lets those who irritate and wrong Him continue to act⁵¹⁶—what will He not be in those who have been hated for pleasing Him, who have preferred to be hated by other men in His name?!⁵¹⁷

Two small works studied by Sprenger in 1856, the Dawā dā al-qulūb wa

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511. Dhawiya.
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^{512.} The Prophet,

^{513.} Nadba.

^{514.} Days Ahmad: curious image: for "The Islamic monastic life" [Cf. ch. 3 n 30].

^{515.} This statement was taken up with great bitterness by Hallaj as he was tortured (Passion, Fr 1:658/Eng 1:607).

^{516. &}quot;Yatafaccal cala ..."; lit. "He prolongs the activity."

^{517.} Ms. Leiden 892, f. 175b [Recueil, p. 14].

ma^crifat himam al-nafs wa adābihi and the Kitāb al-shubuhāt, should be attributed to Anṭākī. He claims to have written the first as dictated by a certain "Abū 'Abdallāh," whom Sprenger identifies with Muḥāsibī (d. 243). But internal criticism of Anṭākī's Dawā ⁵¹⁸ attests to a clearly embryonic state of doctrinal development compared to that of Muḥāsibī's Ri^cāya. Sprenger argues that the latest author cited in the Dawā's isnād lived until 227; he does not take into account the practice, common to mystics of the time, of citing contemporaries who were still alive. ⁵¹⁹ "Abū 'Abdallāh' must mean not Muḥāsibī but Nibājī, the teacher of both Anṭākī and Ibn abī'l-Hawwārī.

The Dawā begins with a theory of ^caql, reason, as a divine grace that allows us to distinguish between truth and error; the theory occupies an intermediate position between those of Dāwūd ibn Muḥabbir and Muḥāsibi. ⁵²⁰ In order to reason and reflect, one must create solitude in a cell (sawma^ca) or in the house, and learn to know oneself through the fear of God. True rahbāniyya entails not talk but action, in meditation. In the Dawā's fifteen chapters, Anṭākī gives treatments of reason, fatuousness, covetouseness, abnegation, the profession of Islamic faith, and asceticism. In chapter 4 he asks himself whether the words tawḥīd, ²īmān, islām, and yaqīn are identical. ⁵²¹ He answers, "Tawhīd means hanīfiyya, simple monotheism; islām means milla, prophetic revelation; ²īmān means taṣdīq, inner consent and action really conforming to canonical duty; yaqīn means maḥḍ al-²īmān, the essence of faith, which is verified by purification of intent at the moment of action."

In his definition, asceticism (zuhd) is not yet as clearly distinct from scrupulous abstinence (wara^c) as in Muḥāsibi's: "Be just before you are generous, perform canonical duties before unrequired acts, abstain from evil before doing pious works; ⁵²² we must abstain from all evil, but we are not required to do every good; we must lay the foundation before building the superstructure."

His shubuhāt contain a study of a series of cases of conscience about canonical obligations. The principle is not to abstain negatively, a priori, from an action, but only by tutiorism, after a careful study of each case has failed to clarify the matter. For example: the cases of fields forbidden to be cultivated (Tarsūs), 523 and of mosques where you may not pray, because the

^{518.} Ms. Syrian Society, Beirut (dated 486 A.H.). Cf. Sprenger, ap. JRASB, 1856.

^{519.} By the word, bachum, which was replaced by their names after their deaths; Muhāsibī mentions Miṣrī; Ibn Aṭā mentions Ḥallāj.

^{520.} Passion, Fr 3:68/Eng 3:58.

^{521.} Passion, Fr 3:162/Eng 3:150.

^{522.} Passion, Fr 3:195-96/Eng 3:183-84.

^{523.} Passion, Fr 3:241 n 12/Eng 3:227 n 59.

land has been occupied illegally... Anțāki's solutions attest to a less developed (and more severe) doctrine than Muḥāsibi's makāsib.

All of the sayings in these two works are based on isnād referring to authorities such as Ḥasan Baṣrī, Ibn Sīrīn, Awza^cī, Ṭawūs, Thawrī, Ibn ^cIyāḍ, and Ibn Asbāṭ. The texts attest to the author's unusual powers of reflection and the exceptionally strict faithfulness of his mind. Anṭākī used to say, "The marks of love are little external ritual (cibāda), much meditation (tafakkur), and a taste for solitude and silence." Act," he also said, "as if on earth there were only you, and, in heaven, only God." 525

6. The Founding of the Baghdad School

No sooner had the new 'Abbāsid capital been founded than hermits in isolated huts were noticed in the surrounding area. One such man was Abū Jacfar Muḥawwalī, who said to Ismācīl Turjumānī, 526 "A heart that loves the world could never acquire inner modesty (warac khafī). What am I saying? Not even outer continence." The most famous hermit was Abū Shucayb Qallāl (d. 160) 527 of Burāthä, later condemned by the mutakallimūn for his thesis of God's demonstrations of affection for His saints. He told stories about non-Muslim ascetics, and Jāḥiz, with strong documentation, reproduces 528 one, on the various types of Christian cells and the Manichaean ascetics' vows, as illustrated by a man who preferred being severely beaten to killing an ostrich that had swallowed a pearl.

The new center attracted the Arab colonists of Kūfa, and the ascetics of Baghdād soon found themselves dependent upon Kūfan teachers. Three schools were formed. Bakr ibn Khunays Kūfi⁵²⁹ trained Ma^crūf Karkhī (d. 200; full name: Abū Maḥfūz Ma^crūf ibn Fīruzān of Karkh Bājiddā),⁵³⁰ a simple illiterate⁵³¹ whose effective holiness⁵³² was recognized even by the strict Ibn Ḥanbal. All that remains of Ma^crūf are brief sayings proving he accepted the terms tuma²nīna (= ma^crīfa) and maḥabba ⁵³³ (which are still dis-

^{524.} Baqli, I, 78 (cf. I, 9).

^{525.} The Syrian school, after him, includes Ibn al-Jallā and Abū ^cAmr Dimishqi, who perhaps should be identified with Abū Ḥulmān.

^{526.} Ibn Arabî, Muḥāḍ., 11, 328.

^{527.} Ash arī, Magālāi, 97a; Hazm IV, 226-27; Sam anī, 70a; Sarrāj, Luma, 200; Tagrib, 1, 460. 528. Hayawān, IV, 146; cf. herein, ch. 2 n 182, text at ch. 3 n 56.

^{529.} Makki, Qūt, I, 9; Dhahabi, I tidāl, s.n.; Ibn Arabi, Muliād., II, 345.

^{530.} According to Maqdisi, Homonyma, 128. Cf. Attar, I, 269-74; Mālinī, 27; Samcani, 478b; Hilya, vol. IX, ms. Paris 2029, f. 49b-54b.

^{531.} He was also the student of Rabi^c ibn Şabiḥ. A verse is attributed to him (Sibṭ Ibn al-Jawzi, Mir²dt, ms. Paris, f. 35a).

^{532.} Mujāb al-da^cwa; tiryāq mujanab (Sulamī, ap. Qush. s.v.). Ibn al-Farrā, Tabaq. Ḥanābila, s.n. 533. Passion, Fr 3:37/Eng 3:29. The anecdote of the ostrich with the pearl is supposed to have been the object of one of Shāfi^cī's legal opinions (according to Muzanī, ap. Subki, l, 241); and apparently figures in the Chinese story of Tripitaka (Casanova). Bakr ibn Khunays, the author of

puted). In addition to his students in hadīth, Khalaf ibn Hishām Bazzār, Zakaryā ibn Yaḥyā Marwazī, and Yaḥyā ibn abī Ṭālib, he had imitators in mysticism, including Sarī Saqaṭī (d. 253) and Ibrahīm ibn al-Junayd (d. c. 270). Later, the whole school of Baghdād would make claims to him. The mosque built on his tomb (its minaret was redone in 612/1215) is still a busy place of pilgrimage. 534

It was the example of another Kūfan, Abū Hāshim Kūfi, that inspired the sermons of a contemporary qāṣṣ, Manṣūr ibn Ammār Dindāngānī (d. 225; born in Baṣra, the son of an Arab of Sulaym who had been a colonist in the area around Marv). According to Ibn al-Jawzī, 536 Ibn Ammār was the first to import the art of the popular sermon (wa²z) to Baghdād. 537 He studied with Ibn Lahī whom he is supposed to have met in Cairo. He was a vehement, uneducated preacher, and he had disciples including Abū Sacīd ibn Yūnus, Ibn abī I-Ḥawwārī, and Alī ibn Muwaffaq. Ibn Adī rejected his hadīth; Ibn Uyayna and Bishr Ḥāfī considered him an illiterate. 538 The most famous titles of his eschatological sermons are preserved in the Fihnist: 339 "The Cloud over the Damned," "The 'Yes'" (mīthāq), "Thinking Well of God," "The Summons to Come before God and Be Judged," "Wait for Us, That We May Borrow from Your Light" (Qur 57:13), 540 etc. One preserved fragment, oratorical and full of images, allows us to form our own Judgment of his style. 541

A third, more strictly Sunni (anti-Shiite) school, with a more solid base in law, is that of Bishr ibn Hārith Hāfi (d. 227), a student of Yūsuf ibn Asbāt. The school professes the common mystical doctrine in attenuated form (as we have seen, on the subject of the hajj). The hypocrisy of the ahl alhadīth provoked particularly sharp words from Bishr: "Pay the tithe of your hadīth!" he said, i.e., "Practice one tenth of the precepts you try to

the hadith on the evil quirā (Talbīs, 121) and a student, through Dirār ibn Amt, of Yazīd Raqqāshī (Kalābādhī, Akhbār, 8b, 16b), is given a biography in the Hilya (VIII, 164, 165). The life of Ma-rūf Karkhī (his waqf in Baghdād is managed by the Suwaydi family) was recorded by Ibn al-Jawzī (Faḍā²il M.). His maqām in Egypt, at Minia, is mentioned by Ali Pasha Mubārak (XII, 37).

^{534.} Mission on Mésopotanie, 11, 108. The legend, accepted by Attar, of his conversion from Christianity to Islam when he was a child, and the contrary legend, also accepted by Attar, of the claim to his body made by the Christians at the time of his burial, seem to me to cancel each other. His relations with the eighth Shiite Imam also seem to be no more than an assumption.

^{535.} Samcani, s.v.; Dhahabi, Ictidal.

^{536.} Quṣṣāṣ, s.v.

^{537.} Before him a Mu^ctazilite, Bishr ibn Mu^ctamir (student of Wāṣil, through Bishr ibn Sa^cīd and Za^cfarānī, and teacher of Murdār), while in prison in Baghdād, had composed verse and popular sermons (Jāḥiz, Hayawān, VI, 92-93 and 97 ff., 94-96 and 136 ff.; Bayān, I, 76-78; Malaṭi, f. 65-66); the style is not unlike that of Mutri, Abū'l-ʿAtāhiya, or Anṭākī.

^{538.} Makkî, Qitt, 1, 153.

^{539.} Fihrist, 184.

^{540.} Herein, ch. 4 n 9.

^{541.} Sartaj, Masāric, 126-28.

^{\$42.} Herein, pp. 44-45.

impose on others."⁵⁴³ In spite of his biographers' discretion, we know that he, like Muḥāsibī, came into conflict with Ibn Ḥanbal.⁵⁴⁴ One of his mystical works is in the library of Bankipore,⁵⁴⁵ and Ibn al-Jawzī wrote a Fadā²il Bishr.⁵⁴⁶

At this time, Baghdad was the meeting place of many traditionists and literary men sympathetic 347 to mysticism. In their meetings, Abū'l-CAtāhiya, from Kūfa, who had been cured of a profane love for CUtba, 148 his favorite, sang lines of unaffected poetry on his conversion to love for God. The first collections of Islamic mystical anecdotes intended for the general public were made in these majalis. The moralizing value of the collections has not yet been exhausted. They contain short pieces, not at all didactic. very slightly arranged according to the moral virtues they illustrate. Together they constitute true encyclopedias for the popularization of Sufism. The oldest are by Muhammad ibn Husayn Burjulani (d. 238): his Kitāb alruhbān⁵⁴⁹ was edited by Ibrāhīm ibn Abdallah ibn al-Junayd (d. c. 270); ⁵⁵⁰ his Karam wa jūd wa sakhā³ al-nufūs⁵⁵¹ by Ahmad ibn Masrūg (d. 298). Then Ibn abī'l-Dunyā (208-281), who rose to become preceptor to the crown prince, wrote numerous works, 552 all intended for the lay public.553 The great later sufi monographs took all of their information on the early masters from these third-century compilations, as summarized by Khuldi in his Hikāyat and by Abū Nu^caym in the Hilya. The doctrinal unification of the Baghdad school would be achieved in practice only with Junayd (d. 298), but its seed was in the powerful synthesis that Muhāsibi (d. 243) had dared to make during this earlier period.

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543. Mālinī, Arba<sup>c</sup>īn, 30; Tagrib., 413.
544. Mālinī, Arba<sup>c</sup>īn, 13.
545. No. 103, of the year 483.
546. Ms. Brill-Houtsma.
547. Cf. the zuhdiyāt of Abū Nuwās.
548. Sibṭ Ibn al-Jawzī, ms. Patis 1505, f. 78b.
548. Herein, text at ch. 2 n 127; Fihrist, 185.
550. On him cf. Dhahabī, I<sup>c</sup>tidāl, II, no 1032; III, no. 2079.
551. Ms. Damascus Zah. majm. 38; Khaṭīb had studied it (ms. Damascus Zah majm. 18).
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^{552.} Brockelmann's article in the Encyclopeadia of Islam, s.n.

^{553.} Not a mystic by intention, Ibn abi'l-Dunyā had influence because of his authentic piety, which was at once spontaneous and traditional, with sources in Burjulānī and Mansūr ibn 'Ammār (Ḥilya, IX, 328). He had a vast audience that extended as far as the court. Followers began to make new editions of his works with naive fervor. The Kitāb al-riqqa wa'l-bukā (ms. Damascus) and Kitāb fadā 'il to dhi'l-lijja (ms. Leiden) ought to be published now that we have a majmū 'a (Cairo, 1354) in which there are five risālāt, including the Kitāb al-awliyā. Among Ḥan-balites, a line of authors linked to Ibn abi'l-Dunyā survives, including Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad Manbijī (c. 777 A.H.), author of the Taṣliyat ahl al-maṣā'ib (ed. Cairo, 1929).

THE SCHOOLS OF THE THIRD CENTURY A.H.

1. MUHĀSIBĪ'S CODIFICATION OF THE EARLY TRADITION

A. His Life and Works

LIFE

Abū cAbdallāh Ḥārith ibn Asad cAnazī (perhaps a pure Arab of the cAnaza Bedouin tribe), called "Muḥāsibī," "he who examines his conscience" (the word muḥāsaba already meant ghañza in Ibn al-Muqaffac's Adab ṣaghīr, 15, 16), was born (c. 165/781) in Baṣra. He came to Baghdād as a young man and died there in 243/847. Unfortunately, nothing about his life is known except his teachings. They combine, for the first time and in rare strength, fervent respect for the most naive traditions, implacable searching for inner moral improvement, and great care for precise philosophical definitions.

In 232/846, he was obliged to stop teaching by blindly reactionary Sunnis who forbade any recourse to theological speculation (kalām), even in the case of those who, like Muḥāsibī, used the Muctazilites' own logical and dialectical methods only to fight them. Ibn Ḥanbal himself spoke out against Muḥāsibī.²

HIS SOURCES

Muḥāsibī seems to have had several levels of training in the schools of various teachers, without becoming especially attached to any one of them; he was converted to mysticism later, under the influence of an inner crisis. He is said to have been the pupil in hadīth of Abū Khālid Yazīd ibn Harūn Sulamī (118–186) and of Muḥammad ibn Kathīr Kūfi, who was rejected by Ibn Ḥanbal and Bukhārī for reporting a tradition with mystical tendencies. An examination of the isnād of Muḥāsibī's works (especially his Ricāya, Risālat al-makāsib, and Faṣl fī'l-maḥabba) provides a long list of important

^{1.} Samcani, f. 509b; Dhahabi, Ictidal, 1, 71; Tagrib., 1, 775.

^{2.} A detail confessed by Nasrabadhi and masked by the others.

^{3.} Firāsa bi nūr Allāh (accepted by Junayd; ap. Mālinī, f. 7).

sources. The principal ones are: (a) (years 40-110) Wahb ibn Munabbih (whom he quotes directly, as if from written works), Mujahid, Hasan Basri, Bakr Muzani; (b) (years 80-160) Ibn Jurayi Makki, Thawri, Ibn Adham. Wuhayb ibn Khālid (d. 165), Mudar al-Qārī; (c) (years 140-215) Abū'l-Nazar Kalbī, Abd al-Azīz Mājishūnī, Abū Dāwūd Sulaymān ibn Dāwūd Tavālisī (d. 203), Hajjāj ibn Muhammad Masīsī (d. 206), Ubaydallah ibn Mūsä Absī Kūfi (d. 213), Dārānī (d. 215); (d) unlike others, he did not hesitate to refer to his contemporaries Sanīd (var: Sunbadh) ibn Dāwūd Masīsī (d. 226). a student of Hammad ibn Zayd; Abū Abd al-Rahman Musabbib ibn Ishaq cAbdī cAlla yī (d. 229), a student of Ibn cUyayna; Rajā Qaysi; Muhammad ibn al-Husayn, i.e., Burjulānī (d. 238); Abū'l-Hasan Uthmān ibn abī Shayba (d. 239); Abū Hamām Walīd ibn Shajac Sakūnī (d. 243); and Dhū'l-Nün Misrī (d. 245), via Husayn ibn Ahmad Shāmī. This list should be examined closely; Muhāsibī tells us in the Nasā'ili that he chose the authors to whom he refers not for the formal legitimacy of their isnād but because of the moral value of their lives and teaching.

HIS WORKS

- 1. Kitāb al-ni^cāya liḥuqūq Allah wa'l-qiyām bihā (= Ri^cāya), ms. Oxford Hunt. 611, f. 1-151b (copied in 539 A.H.)⁴
- Cairo ms. II, 87, entitled Al-ricāya fī talṣṣīl al-maqāmāt, copied in 581, is not by Muḥāsibī. It contains quotations from Ḥallāj and especially from Harawi's (d. 481) Manāzil al-sā³irīn.
- 2. Kitāb al-naṣā³iḥ,* ms. London Or. 7900.
- 3. Kitāb al-tawahhum, ms. Ox Hunt. 611, f. 152a, 171a.5
- 4. Risālat al-makāsib wa'l-warac wa'l-shubuhāt,6 ms. Faydiyya 1101 (copied in 523 A.H.), sec. V.
- 5. Risālat ādāb al-nufūs, ms. Faydiyya 1101, sec. VII (containing four letters at the end).
- 6. Risālat mā³iyyat al-^caql wa ma^cnāhu,⁷ ms. Faydiyya 1101, sec. VIII.
- 7. Risālat bad man anāb ila'llah, ms. Faydiyya 1101, sec. II.8
- 8. Risālat al-cazama, id., sec. III.
- 9. Risālat al-tanbīh, id., sec. IV.
 - * Corrected in the second French edition from Kitāb al-waṣāyā, but see bib. for published version.
- 4. Margaret Smith has published an excellent edition of the Ricaya (London, 1940, reissue 1947, G.O.F.). (Smith gives, in the margins of her edition, the folio numbers of the manuscript to which Massignon refers throughout the Essay.)
 - 5. Passion, Fr 3:178/Eng 3:166.

8. Ed H. Ritter, Glückstadt, 1935.

- 6. Ibid., Fr 3:241/Eng 3:227.
- 7. Ibid., Fr 3:68/Eng 3:59 for māhiyya, as it is usually written. Mā²iyya may be closer to the etymological source of the word (see R. Arnaldez in El2, s.v., Māhiyya); the sense is not in dispute].

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- 10. Risälat fahm al-salat, id., sec. VI.
- 11. Masā²il fi a^cmāl al-qulūb wa'l-jawāriḥ, id., sec. IX.
- 12. Faṣl fi'l-maḥabba, reproduced by Abū Nu^caym (Ḥilya), from a written source.⁹
- 13. Risāla fi'l-zuhd, ms. Faydiyya 1101, sec. I. Perhaps identical to the Kitāb al-zuhd quoted by Ghazālī (Iliyā).
- 14. Kitāb al-sabr, ms. Bankipore 105 (last three folios; the copy is from the year 631). 10
- 15. Kitāb al-dimā⁵, showing that the "blood" shed among the Ṣaḥāba did not damage the Islamic Community's doctrinal unity (Abū ʿAlī Faḍl ibn Shādhān, d. c. 350, " ap. Samʿānī, s.n.) = Kitāb al-kaff 'amma sukhira (sic: properly shujira) bayn al-Ṣaḥāba, read by Dhahabī (s.n.). Perhaps the long extracts in Yāfi cī on the "riches of Ibn 'Awf" come from this book (Yāfī cī, Rawd, ms. Paris 2040, f. 11 a-b; Nashr, Cairo edition, II, 382—83, abridged).
- 16. Sharh al-ma^crifa wa badhl al-nasiha, ms. Berlin, 2815, f. 208–10.
- 16 bis. Fragment on al-muliāsaba, ms. Berlin, 2814, f. 80b-812.
- 17. Kitāb al-ba^cth wa'l-nushūr, ms. Paris 1913, f. 196a-203a. Comparison with number 3 shows that number 17 has been altered.
- 18. Tafakkur wa ictibar; cited in Fihrist, 184.
- 19. Sprenger thought he could attribute to Muḥāsibī the Kitāb dawā dā alnufūs, which Aḥmad ibn ʿĀṣim Anṭākī edited, with a Kitāb al-shubuhāt, as a work of his teacher "Abū ʿAbdallāh." Anṭākī, a well-known writer and a teacher of Ibn abī 'l-Ḥawwārī (d. 246), was older than Muḥāsibī. 12 The teacher "Abū ʿAbdallāh" is probably Nibājī, another of Ibn abī 'l-Ḥawwārī's teachers. As we have seen, upon close examination the remarkable text of the Dawā reveals an archaic doctrine that clearly predates Muḥāsibī.
- 20. Irshād (mustarshid), ms. Cairo (cited by Abdarī, Mudkhal, II, 226).
- 21. Fahm al-Qur³ān (cited by Ibn Taymiyya, Naql, II, 4, 24; Madārishī-Nadjī, Majm. Ibn Taymiyya, 1329, 367–68).
- 22. Akhlāq (ms. Köpr. 725).

The Ri^cāya's influence on the best North-African Muslims, Abū Mad-yan, Ibn 'Abbād, Zarrūq ('umdat al-ṣādiq), is well known. Naṣrābādhī defended Muḥāsibī. Ibn al-Jawzī attacked him (Talbīs, 178 [cf. 124], 187—90, where he claims that Muḥāsibī invented the dialogue between Abū Dharr

^{9. [}Hilya, X, 73-110], for which Ibn al-Jawzi (in the presace to his Sasiwa) reproaches Abū Nu^caym, as he does for the details given on Antāki and Shibli (anecdote cited herein, text related to ch. 3 n g and ch. 4 n 501).

^{10.} A fragment of the Kitāb al-sabr wa'l-ridā was published by O. Spies in Islamica [Leipzig], 1934.

^{11.} Cited by Anbarl, Nuzhat al-alibba, 345.

^{12.} Kalābādhī; and all chronological lists.

and Ibn ^cAwf [quoted in *Munūj*, IV, 270]; Ibn al-Jawzī therefore puts the date of Abū Dharr's death back from 32 to 25 A.H.). Abdalhalim Mahmud is the author of a dissertation in French on Muhāsibī.

B. Summaries and Extracts

The Ricaya takes the form of advice dictated to a disciple, divided into sixty odd chapters: an introduction (f. 4a) on istimac, explaining how to listen in order to obtain the most benefit from what is said: (ch. 1) on rahbāniyya (f. 5b), the monastic life mentioned in the Qur an; (ch. 2) mughtar nafsahu (f. 8a), how the examination of conscience dissipates illusions about your own devotion; (3) the first required knowledge (f. 8b), the knowledge that you are a servant subject to a master; (4) rules for the examination of conscience, the muhāsaba (f.9a), concerning the future, concerning the past; (5) the stages of conversion (tawba, f. 11);13 (6) being prepared for death (istic dad li'l-mawt, f. 34b); (7-12) the implicit hypocrisy (nya, f. 39b) of those who practice religion in order to be seen practicing it incitements to remedies against this hypocrisy; (13) (f. 49b) how to learn to despise the world; (14-15) how ikhlās allows you to prevail, and psychological defenses against Satanic temptation; (16-19) categories of implicit hypocrisy; (20-23) how to make yourself act only for God and without self-interest; (24-27) how to form an intent (niyya) at the moment of action; (28) how to turn towards God during action; (29) how to take the measure of the consequences of your actions upon others: the risks of scandal, of vainglory, of the sadness when you feel despised, of divulgence of hurtful secrets; (37-44) to what extent must you desire the contempt of others, not their esteem; (45-53) how to retire into yourself and struggle against conceit (cujb); (54-57) pride (kibr) and humility; (58) the forms of illusion (ghira) that deceive the servants of God; (59) permitted hate and zeal; (60) how to lead a unified life, night and day, before God; (61) remaining full of fear of yourself after beginning to serve God. 14

Beginning of the Naṣā'iḥ (ms. London, Or. 7900, f. 2b-3b) [Recueil, pp. 18-20]: In this autobiography or philosophical confession, which was no doubt the inspiration for Ghazāli's Munqidh, Muḥāsibl, like many of his contemporaries, observes that the Islamic Community is split "into about seventy sects" and that no one knows which one is in the right. He continues:

^{13.} In this section there is a phrase taken from Dārānī: "The friend does not abandon His friend."

14. The comparison with Makkī (Qūt al-qulūb) and Ghazālī (lhyā) is very instructive. Makkī gives but a pale reflection of ch. 4 (1, 75), 5 (1, 178), 14, 2nd 24 (11, 158); and Ghazālī, in his Muhlīkāt, merely summarizes ch. 59 (III, 113), 7 (III, 203), 54 (III, 237), 58 (III, 264); cf. 5 (IV, 1). Neither of them gives the linked states of consciousness, the method of experimental psychology, taught by Muḥāsibī.

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I was seized by the desire for a directive in my studies; I exercised my thought; I observed longer than before. From the Book of God and the consensus (ijmā^c) of the Community it became clear to me that covetousness hides the right path and leads away from the truth. Then I discovered, by the consensus of the Community, in the Book of God revealed to the Prophet, that the way to salvation is to hold fast to piety towards God, to the accomplishment of canonical duties, to the scrupulous observance (wara^c) of prescription and proscription of acts, and to all the sanctions of religious law; and in all things to act purely for God and follow the Prophet's example (ta2assi).15 Then I began to learn the canonical duties and sanctions, the ways of the Prophet and the strict observance of the rules as described by the learned and in the sources. But I noticed that there was agreement on some points and disagreement on others. The Prophet of God said, "Islam began in exile (gharīban), and it will be exiled again as in the beginning. Happy are the expatriates of the nation of Muhammad, for they live in solitude, alone with their religion." 16 My misfortune grew because of the lack of guides able to conduct me (to the blessed solitude of true Islam), 17 and I feared that sudden death would overtake me in the troubled state in which I was held by the Community's discord. Concerning what I could not discover alone, I exhorted myself to make inquiries of people (qawm) in whom I had noticed signs of piety, abstinence, and scrupulous observance, people who preferred (" ithar) the next life to this one. I found that their guidance and maxims (wasāyā) agreed with the advice of the imams of the right path, that they gave the same good counsel (nash) to the Community, 18 giving no man license to sin but not despairing of God's forgiveness for any fault, recommending patience (sabr) during unhappiness and adversity, contentment (in God, rida) with the (divine) decrees, and gratitude (shukr) for the gifts of grace. 19 And they sought to make God's servants love (tahabbub) Him20 by reminding them of His

^{15.} Passion, Fr 3:196/Eng 3:184.

^{16.} The famous hadith al-ghurba (cf. R 13) is perhaps a hadith qudsī. Ibn Rajab wrote a monograph about it in the Kashf al-kurba (in Majm. of Ibn Rumayh, Cairo, 1340, 311-28). It is attributed to Abdallah Ibn Curnar by Muslim (Manar, 29, 493); to Ja far Şadiq by Ibn Zaynab (Ghayba, 174; Firaq, 63; and Nawbakhti); and to Ahmad Antāki (herein, ch. 4 n 506 and related text; see also Sha fawi, Tab. I, 82). It is cited by Muḥāsibi, Ibn Qutayba (Mukhtalif, 139), Sahl (Hilya, X, 190), the Ikhwān al-Şafā (IV, 279), the Ismaili Ibn al-Walid (Dānigh, ms. Hamdani, II, 502), and the Khārijite Sālimī (Majm. 649). Cf. also Mursī (ap. Ibn Atā Allah, Lajā j, I, 201), Aflāki (I, 273), Sha fawi (Laṭā j, margin, I, 201), Haytami (Fat. had. 121). The question of the gharib, the "expatriate," linked to the Hijra (of Hagar, well before Arab prophecy), is related to the Abrahamic idea of sacred hospitality, the Ikrām al-dayf (dakhāla, jiwār); Ibrāhīni Ḥarbī (d. 285) wrote an Ikrām al-dayf, ed. Manār, 1349 A.H. Cf. Revue internationale de la Croix Rouge, 1952, pp. 449-68, "Le respect de la personne humaine en Islam, et la priorité du droit d'asile sur le devoir de juste guerre" ["Respect for the Person in Islam, and the Priority of the right to Asylum over the Duty of Waging a Just War"].

^{17.} The Days Ahmad of Antaki.

^{18.} Passion, Fr 3:203/Eng 3:191; Malati, f. 143.

^{19.} Passion, Fr 3:44/Eng 3:36.

^{20.} Ibid., Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206.

favors and excesses of favor. They assembled the penitent faithful, bringing together those learned in God's majesty (fazama), in the fullness of his power, in His Book and His ways; those who knew His ritual and what must be done and avoided; those scrupulous against innovation and personal proclivities; those knowledgeable about the next life, the terrors (ahāwīl) of the resurrection. the abundance of the rewards and the harshness of the penalties. God gave them a share of external sadness21 and overwhelming anxiety, dissuading them from being distracted by the joys of this world. Desirous of their rule of conduct and appreciating their special advantages (fawa bid). I decided that no one who had understood their argument* could fail to accept it; I saw that adopting this rule of conduct and acting according to its sanctions had become obligatory for me; I bound myself to the rule in my conscience, and I concentrated my inner eye upon it; I made it the basis of my ritual practice and the support of my acts; I passed through all the states of consciousness under it, and I asked God to grant me the favor to thankfulness to Him for the gift He had made to me of the rule; I asked Him to give me the strength to see that its sanctions be maintained, and to confirm the knowledge He had given me of my own powerlessness (tagsīr). Surely I am unable to perform the right acts of thankfulness to my Lord for what He has made me understand; I pray to Him that in His pure generosity (fadl) He may guide me and keep me without sin ...

The beginning of the Fasl fi'l-mahabba [Recueil, pp. 20-21]:

The origin of the love of the faithful for religious acts is in the love of the Lord, for it is He Who made them begin to practice. Indeed, He made Himself known to them, led them to obey Him, and made them love Him (tahabbub) - they were responsible for nothing. He placed the gemis of love for Him in the hearts of those who love Him. Then he arrayed them in the brilliant light that lent their hearts phrases indebted to the violence of His love for them. When that was done, he showed them angels rejoicing in them ... Before creating them, He praised them. Before they had praised Him, He thanked them, knowing in advance that He would inspire in them what He had written and announced for them. Then, after ravishing their hearts, He introduced them into His creation. When He delivered the bodies of the learned into creation, He had placed in their hearts the mysterious treasures inherent in their union (muwāṣala) with the Beloved. Then, when He wanted to bring them closer to Him, and to bring the creation closer to Him through them, He gave them their intentions (designs = himma) and placed them on the chairs of Wisdom. When they had to depart from their own wisdom because of pains (and

^{*} This translation, as if the text read "falā man fahimahu," was corrected in the Arabic, without comment, 19 1929, to "Salayya min fahmihi" (Remeil, p. 20). Either way, the pronoun is vague.

^{21.} Cf. the quote from Wakic, herein, ch. 4 n 490.

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illnesses), it was in the light of His wisdom that they cast their eyes toward the lands where remedies grow.²² To teach them how the remedy works, He began by healing their hearts. He commanded them to comfort those who suffer and counseled them to be compassionately involved in the sufferers' requests. He entrusted them with the fulfillment of the prayers of the needy. Then, by concentrating the attention of their intelligence, He called them to hear Him in their hearts as He addressed them, saying, "All My witnesses! He who comes to you sick because he cannot find Me, heal him; he who comes a fugitive fleeing my service, bring him back; he who comes forgetful of My comforts and favors, remind him of them, for 'Surely I shall be the best physician for you, for I am gentle'; and he who is gentle takes as his servants only those who are gentle also."

Polemical fragment concerning Ibn Awf's riches:23

The doctors of the Law (whom worldly life has seduced) pretend that the Companions of Muhammad possessed wealth; these wayward unfortunates use the memory of the Companions to excuse themselves for amassing riches. The devil deceives them and they do not suspect it. Woe to you, wayward man! Your argument of Abd al-Rahman ibn Awf's riches is but a ruse of the demon, who pronounces it with your tongue, to your eternal loss. When you claim that the best of the Companions of the Prophet have desired wealth in order to amass it for ostentation and ornament, you slander those venerated men, and you accuse them of a terrible thing. And when you maintain that amassing permitted wealth is better than giving it up, you show that you understand nothing of Muhammad or the other prophets. You also judge them incapable, since they did not succeed in becoming as wealthy as you. In this opinion, you propose that the Prophet was not advising the members of his Community when he told them not to amass riches.24 O you wayward slanderer of the Prophet, who in this has shown himself a counselor, merciful and mild. Woe to you, wayward man! For even Ibn Awf, with his virtue, piety, and good works, his material sacrifices for God's sake, his companionship with the Prophet who promised him Paradise, even he will have to wait in the dock in anguish (the aliwal) because of riches that he gained legitimately and used soberly for good works. He will not be able to run towards Paradise with the poor Muhājirān,25 he will arrive only slowly, putting his feet in their footsteps.

^{22.} Compare to St. John Climacus, The Heavenly Ladder [or The Ladder of Divine Ascent] step 26, nos. 13, 25.

^{23. [}Fragment of another recension, Recueil, p. 21.] Quoted here from Yāfi^ci, Nashr, II, 382 [see the complete text in Rawd al-riyāḥīn, Cairo, 1374/1955, 24-25]; v.s., sec. t. A. no. 15; comp. Naṣā²ilı f. 8a.

^{24.} This is a hadith explaining Qur. 9: 14 (cf. herein p. 98 and text at ch. 4 n 116).

^{25.} Who will go there first, according to the hadith.

But then what do you suppose will happen to us, who are submerged under the temptations of this world?

What a scandal to see this wayward man, possessing the suspect gains of illicit commerce, who howls against the filthiest sinners while wallowing in worldly seductions, vanity, and temptations. And then he comes and cites the case of Ibn Awf to justify himself!

We must observe here that the long campaign against worldliness by the quṣṣāṣ, the preachers (of whom Muḥāsibī was the most illustrious one), at least succeeded in establishing in Islam the collective observance of certain restrictions that had been practiced only by some of the devout, such as the bans on wine, silken garments, and paintings of living creatures.

C. His Principal Theses, His Disciples, and His Influence

Muhāsibī had perfectly mastered the technical language of the theologians of his time.26 Sometimes he effortlessly achieved phrases of great literary beauty: "Endurance (sabr) is making oneself a target (tahadduf) for the arrows of pain"; 27 "Death is the touchstone of the believers." 28 But the exactness of a definition or the fine choice of an epithet was of merely secondary interest to him. The dominant note of his work is the insinuation of an intent, a proposal to transform man from within by means of a rule for living, not rigid, but supple and constantly revised; a method, n^cāya, subordinating the regulation of our individual acts and social relations, ritual or not, to the recognition of a primary duty, continually renewed deep in the heart, to serve one Master, God (huquq Allah), before everything else. This rule for living involves (a) distinguishing reason (caql) from science (cilm),29 because not all (theoretical) knowledge of something makes it (practically) reasonable (parable of the bādhir, the "sower"),30 and because a certain kind of listening (istimac) is required for understanding; and (b) distinguishing faith (2 iman) from real wisdom (macnifa),31 because not all professions of faith are accepted by God (parable of the waylakum, the "Vae vobis!"),32 and because obedience must be more important than observance.

When practiced loyally, with the aid of education strengthened by re-

^{26.} He uses Mu^ctazili vocabulary but in order to turn it against the Mu^ctazilites (^cadl, fadl, luff; jā^ca lā yurād Allah bihā: Ri^cāya, f. 82b).

^{27.} Baqli, II, 144.

^{28.} Ricaya, f. 31b.

^{29.} Passion, Fr 3:68, 225 n 7/Eng 3:59, 213 n 285.

^{30.} Ricaya, f. 5a.

^{31.} Passion, Fr 3:370-71/Eng 3:60-61.

^{32.} Nasa ih, f. 15b; Asin, Logia, no. 51.

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solve,³³ experiments with a rule for living engender (in the soul) a succession of inner states,³⁴ aḥwāl, which are virtues linked in a certain order (tawallud).³⁵

This last point does not indicate a concession to Muctazilism.36 It is not necessary for reason, caql, on which Muhasibi wrote a perceptive short work,¹⁷ to be appointed the impartial judge of good and evil, "putting in the balance one thought for Satan and another for God". 38 Reason must discern what God prefers (i.e., "the more difficult of two direct commands"),39 so that the soul, more and more open to grace, to the loving preeternal providence that is trying to reach it, may be infused with the divine touches (hulūl al-fawā'id), which transform the will and make it renounce not the usage of any means as such but the choice of what means will be used (sihha: al-haraka).40 With delicate nuances, Muhasibi reviews and corrects quietist tendencies in his predecessors, including Shaqiq (tawakkul),41 Rabah (preference for those who do not suffer for their sins),42 and Dārānī (tark al-nāfila, ishfāgan).43 Maintaining a precise balance, he condemns the excessive rigor of some anathemas (still recommended by Antākī) against the shubuhāt,44 and warns against vain observance of ritual by those who wear distinctive clothing (shuhra).45 He remains very firm, as we have seen, on the necessity of universal asceticism.

Muḥāsibī is unusual in being an analyst adept in all forms of casuistry who nevertheless takes the most naive forms of devotion as his point of departure. In his Kitāb al-tawahhum, he even begins with the Hashwiyya's eschatology, including the bodily pleasures provided by the houris. Then he slowly and imperceptibly leads the reader to the saints' solemn procession towards the pure vision of the divine Essence Which Alone gives perfect joy. Here we seize the difference between Dārānī's imperfectly enlightened piety and Muḥāsibī's intense inner life, the translucence of his conscience.

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36. One of Muhāsibi's propositions (Adāb al-nufits, f. 130 ff.; cf. Makki, Qūt, i, 268-69) differentiates 'adl and fadl (cf. Passion, Fr 3:132-33/Eng 3:120-21), sabr and wara', zuhd and riḍā, inṣāf and ilisān, human effort and divine grace, the latter being preeminent and having the initiative (Maliabba, f. 1 ff.).

37. Passion, Fr 3:68/Eng 3:58.

38. Ri'āya, f. 52b.

39. lbid., f. 30b; cf. Passion, Fr 3:195-96/Eng 3:183-84.

40. Maliabba, f. 7 [Hilya, X, 79]; and herein, ch. 4 n 15 and text at ch. 5 n 86.

41. Makāsib, f. 67, 74.

42. Ri'āya, f. 16a; cf. Passion, Fr 1:118/Eng 1:77.

43. Ri'āya, f. 692.

44. Herein, text at ch. 4 n 523.
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35. Tawallud al-sida min al-ma^crifa (Mahabba, f. 25; Ri^cāya, f. 8b, 22b, 31b, 32b).

33. Ricaya, f. 182: "the six means of strengthening it."

34. List ap. Adab al-nufits, f. 134-35.

45. Masa il, f. 237.

HIS DISCIPLES AND HIS INFLUENCE

The only rāwīs of Muḥāsibī mentioned by Dhahabī are Aḥmad ibn Masrūq Ṭūsī (d. 298), Aḥmad al-Ṣūfī al-Kabīr (d. 306), Aḥmad ibn Qāsim ibn Naṣr Farā³idī, Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn abī Sunḥ, Junayd, Ismā¹īl ibn Isḥāq Sarrāj, and the Shāfi¹ite qāḍī Ibn Khayrān (d. 316). The list is abridged, showing the influence of the condemnation by strict traditionalists, notably the Ḥanbalīs, on his dialectical methods; 46 it gives an incomplete demonstration of the intense, sustained influence Muḥāsibī exercised upon consciences. He inspired Junayd and Ibn Aṭā. He is one of the five masters acknowledged by Ibn Khafif; 47 the Ash¹arīs, under the latter's influence, salute him as the first precursor of their reform. References to the "works of Muḥāsibī" are found everywhere in Ghazālī's Iḥyā, and I have located some of the sources for the quotations, in the Ri¹āya and the Naṣā³iḥ.

Muḥāsibī is one of the three masters recognized by the Kāzarūniyya order. 49 Among the Shādhiliyya, there is an anecdote about Mursī, who gave a precise summary of the Ricāya to one of his students, when the student was returning a copy of it: "Serve God with full understanding (of your ritual acts), and never be pleased with yourself." 30

Under the persistent attacks of traditionists, this admirable manual of the inner life was slowly and systematically removed from circulation. Abū Zur^ca Rāzī (200–264), a direct disciple of Ibn Ḥanbal, was among the first to put Muḥāsibī's works on the index: ⁵¹ "Abū Zur^ca said, 'Such books are nothing but heresy and error; keep to the (strict) traditions, and you will find profit in them.' Some objected that reading these books breathes a warning (^cibra)⁵² into the conscience. He answered, 'Anyone who is not warned by the Qur²ān will find no warning in these books.'"⁵³ Attempts were made to accept at least certain extracts of the Ri^cāya, in attenuated and amended form: ⁵⁴ Clzz Maqdisī (d. 660) made a Ḥall maqāṣid "al-Ri^cāya," an insufficient abridgment of chapters 1–4, 7, 47, 54, 57, 58, 59,

^{46.} Junayd as well (Passion, Fr 3:62 n 1/Eng 3:53 n 1).

^{47.} Passion, 1st ed., 411. [Ibn Khafif's five shaykhs who possessed the science of external law (2āhir = sharifa): Muḥāsibī (d. 243/857; Shāfifite), Junayd (d. 298/910; Thawrite); Ruwaym (d. 303/915; Zāhirite); Ibn Atā (d. 309/922; traditionist; = Sufyānī); Amr al-Makki (disciple of Junayd). Vide Qushayrī, ed. 1318, 2; Yāfifī, Nashr, f. 41. On the Kāzarūnī list, v. Atṭār, II, 292.] Cf. Passion, 2nd ed., Fr 2:196 ff./Eng 2:186 ff.

^{48.} Mungidh, 28.

^{49.} Passion, Fr 2:196/Eng 2:186.

^{50.} Sha rawi, Tab., 11, 28.

^{51.} Ap. Clraqi, Basith, ms. London Or. 4275, f. 18b [Recueil, p. 23].

^{52.} Herein, ch. 3, sec. 4, and p. 95; Passion, Fr 3:253/Eng 3:239.

^{53.} Also quoted in Dhahabī, I tidāl, I, 200 [see note 51].

^{54.} Ibn Khidrawayh [or Ibn Khidruya] and Hujwiri had perhaps already tried it (Kashf, 338, 280).

and 60 of the master-work; 55 and Yüsuf Şafadı composed an analogous abridgment, even more condensed. 56

Muhāsibi's strong personality maintained his prestige; it was against him that, in the fourteenth century, 'Abd al-Raḥīm ibn Ḥusayn 'Irāqī (d. 806) directed his Bā 'ith 'alā'l-khalāş min hawādith al-quṣṣāṣ, 57 a refutation of an anonymous apology. 58 Dhahabī, so violent against the mystics, never dared directly attack Muhāsibī, and, in judging him, 59 only summarized the article in Ibn al-A'rābi's (d. 341) Tabaqāt al-nussāk: "Muḥāsibī was learned in hadāth, fiqh, and the history—sects, sayings, and anecdotes—of the ascetics (nussāk); but he gave personal opinions on lafz, 60 imān, 61 and kalām Allāh bisawt, 62 God's direct conversation with the elect of Paradise."

2. THE KHURĀSĀNIAN SCHOOL OF IBN KARRĀM

A. Origins: Ibn Adham, Shaqiq, and Ibn Ḥarb

As we have seen, the quṣṣāṣ' movement of moral teaching spread among the Arabs from Baṣra who had colonized Khurāsān, starting in the second half of the second century A.H.; first in the city of Balkh, when the disciples of Ibn Adham, who had died an expatriate in Syria, ⁶¹ went back to evangelize their teacher's native country.

The details of Ibn Adham's life are still far from clear.⁶⁴ He directly borrowed the Başran school's doctrine and deepened several elements of it: murāqaba, contemplation⁶⁵ (which is more than fikr, reflection); kamad, contrition⁶⁶ (more than huzn, attrition); khulla, permanent "divine friendship"; ⁶⁷ and ma^crifa, "wisdom" (new notion). ⁶⁸ The failures of his attempts

- 55. Ms. Berlin 2812.
- 56. Ms. Berlin 2813.
- 57. Ms. London Or. 4275.
- 58. On his argumentation, cf. herein, text at ch. 3 n 88.
- 59. Ta2rīkli, ms. Leiden 1721, f. 22b.
- 60. Passion, Fr 3:106 n 2/Eng 3:95 n 266.
- 61. Passion, Fr 3:162/Eng 3:150.
- 62. Passion, Fr 3:156/Eng 3:143; the accused text is in Tawahhum, f. 170a. An application of his general thesis on fadl and fadl.
 - 63. Like Ibn Asbät, seeking to make a living on halal ground.
 - 64. Herein, text at ch. 4 n 198.
- 65. "Al-murāqaba ļuaji al-saql" (ap. Hilya, Goldziher's reading [Vorles., Eng. trans., 144 n 88]; the Damascus text reads, "al-murāqaba muklikh al-samal").
- 66. "Nothing is harder to practice than kamad; it is keeping a wound open, a wound that death alone can close with scars." Ibn Arabī, Muḥādarāt [Muḥād], I, 219). Cf. Muḥāsibi, Maḥabba, f. 25.
- 67. Passion, Fr 3:219/Eng 3:207: "For him who knows what he is seeking, sacrifice is easy" (= "ittisāf bi'l-riḍā," says the gloss, Baqlī, I, 162). "If I could devote my heart's sight to Him, I would think I had given Him more than if I had conquered Constantinople!" (Baqlī, Shath, f. 27; cf. Passion, Fr 1:617/Eng 1:569). "Rules of agreement and solecisms—in our sentences, or in our actions?" (Jāḥiz, Bayān, 1, 143).
 - 68. Passion, Fr 3:66 n 3/Eng 3:56 n 19.

at an apostolic mission induced him to lead a more and more retired life. Of his hundred and twenty visions of God (during which he had asked seventy questions), he tried to present only four; "Since all of these were misunderstood. I became silent." 69

Here is one of the four, published by Muhasibi in his Mahabba: 70

Ibrāhīm ibn Adham said to one of his brothers in God: If you wish that God should love you and that you should be the friend of God, then renounce this world and the next; do not desire them, empty yourself of the two worlds,71 and turn your face to God; then God will turn His face to you and fill you with His grace. For I have learned that God revealed himself to John, son of Zacharias, saying "O John! I made an agreement with Myself that none of My servants should love Me - I having sounded his heart and knowing his intention — and I not then become his hearing, 72 with which he listens; his vision. with which he sees; his tongue, with which he speaks; and his heart, with which he understands. When I have become these things for him, I shall make him hate to be concerned with any but Me, I shall lengthen his meditation (fikra), I shall be present with him during the night, and I shall be the familiar of his days. O John! I shall be the guest [jalis] of his heart, the end of his desire⁷³ and hope; every day and every hour are a gift to him from Me; he approaches Me and I approach him, that I may hear his voice, out of love for his humility. By my glory and grandeur! I shall invest him with a mission (mab^cath)⁷⁴ that will be the envy⁷⁵ of the Prophets and Messengers. Then I shall command a crier to cry, 'Here is X, son of Y, a saint sanctified by God, His elect among His creatures, whom He calls to visit Him (ziyāra)76 so that his heart may be healed by a look at His face.' And when he comes to Me, I shall raise the veils between him and Me, 77 and he will contemplate Me at his ease; 78 then I shall say, 'Receive the good work (abshir)! 79 By My glory and grandeur! I shall satisfy your hearts's thirst (during our separation) for the sight of Me; I shall renew your supernatural investiture 80 every day, every night, every hour." And when the announcers of the good word have come back to

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70. Muhāsibī, Mahabba, f. 12 [Recueil, pp. 22-23].
   71. Hallaj, in Passion, Fr 2: 57 n 4/Eng 2: 50 n 87.
   72. Here, the Damascus ms. has been corrected by the one in Leiden, thanks to R. Nicholson.
This became a hadish qudsi: "Kuntu sameahu wa basarahu."
   73. Cf. Hallaj, in Passion, Fr 3:50-51, 184/Eng 3:42-43, 172.
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69. Makki, Qiit, II, 67.

^{74.} Hallaj, in Passion, Fr 3:206 n 9/Eng 3:194 n 85.

^{75.} Chibta; Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206.

^{76.} Ibid., Fr 3:178/Eng 3:166; herein, ch. 3 n 17 and related text.

^{77.} Rafe al-hijāb; cf. herein, text at ch. 4 n 342.

^{78.} Inadequate term; cf. Passion, Fr 3:179 n 1/Eng 3:166 n 188.

^{79.} Cf. above, n 74.

^{80.} Karāma.

God, He will receive them and say, "O you who return to Me, what have you suffered in your experiences in the world because I am your Lot (hazz)?⁸¹ What have your enemies made you suffer because I am your Peace?"⁸²

The text is fundamental, and it presents an entire series of problems related to mystical union.

Ibn Adham's principal disciple was Abū Alī Shaqīq ibn Ibrāhīm Balkhī, killed on jihād at the taking of Kawlāb (194). Shaqīq is the first to have defined as a "mystical state" the ideal concept of tawakkul, "resignation," permanent abandonment to God, which was rejected by Thawri. 83 To define the idea, Shaqiq says, "Just as you are incapable of adding anything to your nature (khalqika) or your life, so you are incapable of adding anything to your daily wage (rizq). Therefore, cease to tire yourself in pursuit of it."84 "Negotiable goods (makāsib) are now worth no more than damaged goods; merchant capital and the professions are suspect (shubuhāt) today, in the Quran; increasing or preserving them is not allowed, because of the prominence of fraud and the shortage of proper opinions."85 Muhāsibī rightly identifies the quietist risk in these formulas, which he summarizes by the statement, "It is wrong to move (haraka) towards a definite gain,"86 instead of abandoning oneself completely to God. The thesis, a signature of the Khurāsānian school, is that of inkār al-kasb.87 It means, theoretically, a denial that man may desire to obtain anything; and, practically, a vow of voluntary poverty and begging, 88 later attenuated by Shaala's disciples.

The doctrine was propagated in Balkh by Aḥmad ibn Khiḍrawayh (d. 240), ⁸⁹ Muḥammad ibn Faḍl Balkhī (d. 243), ⁹⁰ and Abū ʿAbd al-Raḥmān Ḥātim ibn ʿUnwān Aṣamm (d. 237), who publicly stigmatized the behavior of the qāḍī of Rayy, Ibn Muqātil; in Nishāpūr, by Abū Ḥaṣṣ Ḥaddād (d. 264), the Malāmatī, and, especially, by Ibn Ḥarb (d. 234).

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81. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:210, 177-78/Eng 3:198, 165.
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^{82.} Cf. Passion, Fr 3:227 L 11/Eng 3:214 L 38 (silm).

^{83.} Sibt Ibn al-Jawzī, ms. Paris 1505, f. 162.

^{84.} Baqli, II, 143 [Recueil, p. 10]. 85. Makki, Qiil, II, 295.

^{86.} Makāsib, f. 74 [Recueil, p. 10].

^{87.} Goldziher, ap. WZKM, XIII, 43 [Recueil, p. 10].

^{88.} Shaqiq combined it with tafati al-faqr, which the disciples abandoned as untenable (cf. the parallel break with the "vow of chastity" suggested by the Basran school). Ibn Karrām gave the first clear exposition of the problem of tafati al-faqr (Passion, Fr 3:239 n 6/Eng 3:225 n 31), showing that a gradual "impoverishment" through renunciation (tawakkul) had to be a correlative of a gradual "enrichment" through grace: so "impoverishment" was considered a means, not an end (cf. Qutayba).

^{89.} Author of a Ricaya; it seems the date of his death must be moved forward, because he expresses admiration for Bistami [see above, n 54].

^{90.} Author of the Kitab al-zuhd and the Sifat al-janna wa'l-nar (Sameanl, f. 3772).

Ahmad ibn Harb (176–234) seems to have been a powerful figure; a detailed biography of him ought to be exhumed from Hākim Dabbi's history of Nīshāpūr. ⁹¹ A disciple of ibn ^cUyayna, Ibn Harb was accused of Murji²ism by Jum^ca Balkhī and Ibn Hibbān. They also criticized, without understanding it, the doctrine of abandonment that was the basis for his life of intense mortification. Ibn Harb left behind a saintly reputation. He trained two disciples, notably, who would become illustrious in Islam: the theologian Ibn Karrām and the mystic Yaḥyā Rāzī (d. 258). The latter had himself buried at his master's feet.

B. Ibn Karrām

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Abū ^cAbdallāh Muḥammad ibn Karrām⁹¹ ibn ^cArrāf ibn Khizāna ibn al-Barā Nizārī, was born c. 190 near Zaranj (Sijistān) and came to study in Khurāsān: first at Nīshāpūr, where he was trained by lbn Ḥarb; then at Balkh, by Ibrāhīm ibn Yūsuf Mākyānī (d. 241); at Marv, by ^cAlī ibn Ḥajar; and at Herat, by the qāḍī ^cAbdallāh ibn Mālik ibn Sulaymān Ḥarawī. About 230, he left to spend five years at Mecca as a mujāwir. He came back (by way of Jerusalem) to Nīshāpūr, and to Sijistān, where he sold his goods in a spirit of poverty.

Then he began a resonant apostolate, interrupted by a trial, the only account of which is by an adversary, CUthman Darimi, who succeeded in having Ibn Karram banished by the wali for pretensions to ilham (personal inspiration). Hibban mocks his mistakes of pronunciation, confusions of h and h, t and t, s and s, hamza and ayn. Ibn Karram and his disciples traveled as mendicant apostles, clothed in new sheepskin (removed from the animal and tanned, but not sewn); on their heads they wore white qalansuwa. Wherever he went, they erected an outdoor brick platform, on which he would sit, preaching and telling hadith. Upon his return with these attendants to Nishāpūr, he was briefly incarcerated by order of Tāhir II (230-

^{91.} Dhahabi, Ictidal, I, 42; Attar, I, 240-44. His Kitab al-duca is cited by Hajj Khalifa.

^{92.} Sources: Ibn al-Bayyi^c Dabbī, Ta²rīkh Nīshāpīr, extract ap. Sam^cani, f. 476b-477a; Dhahabī, l^ctidāl (s.n.); Ta²rīkh kahīr (sub anno 255: a "detailed" piece that appears, abridged, in Leiden ms. 1721, f. 73b-75a). Ibn al-Athīr (Kāmil, s. a. 255) gives his genealogy, Mujīr al-Din ^cUlaymī (Uns jalīl, ed. Cairo, 1283, I, 262) tells of his stay in Jerusalem.

^{93.} And not "Kirām" (Ibn al-Haysam, in Dhahabi, Ictidāl).

^{94. &}quot;Ilhamun yuhimunihu Allah" (Dhahabi, Tarikh, ms. Leiden 1721, f. 73b-752).

^{95.} Whence the anecdote of the needle of Jesus (herein, ch. 4 n 484).

^{96.} The principal one, a sort of rule for living, as it comes down to Hamdun ibn Husayn Şaffâr, is as follows: "Five things give life to the heart: enduring hunger (jaw²), reading the Qur²an, rising at night (for prayer), humbling oneself before God at dawn, and frequenting the pious" (Dhahabi, Ta²rikh, ms. Leiden 1721, f. 73b. [Recueil, p. 24]).

248). Then he went to Syria's military frontier (thughūr). Returning to Nīshāpūr, he was imprisoned again, this time for eight years (243-251); each Friday, after the required ghusl, he would beg the jailor to let him go to the mosque-cathedral for canonical prayer. 97 When the jailor refused, he would cry, "O my God! Do you not see that I have done everything possible, and that I am prevented not by myself but by another!" Set free by the emir Muhammad (248/862-259/872) in Shawwal 251, Ibn Karram left for Ierusalem. His moral authority was growing steadily. He preached in public on the central esplanade of the Sakhra, near the column adjoining the "cradle of Jesus,"98 and large crowds gathered around him. "Then," says an opponent, "it became clear that he was teaching that faith was no more than a recommended formula,"99 and they left him. He died in Jerusalem, 100 twenty years after he had first come, in Safar 255; he was buried at the gate of Jericho, near the tombs of the prophets to (var. "near the tomb of John, son of Zacharias"). His disciples would make the ictikaf (pious retreat) at his tomb, and in Jerusalem they built a home for ascetics, muta called khāngāh; 102 this hermitage became the parent-house of the order of the Karrāmiyya, whose members were engaged in teaching, as well as begging. Van Vloten 103 has shown that the founding of the first Muslim madrasas must be traced to them: the Ash^carite schools were modeled upon the Karrāmiyyan colleges they replaced, when, in the eleventh century, Ash^carism began to do battle against the Qarmathians in the field of education, by setting universities against universities. 104

97. Critique of the eremetic custom described in Passion, Fr 3:238 n 6/Eng 3:224 n 22.

^{98.} The place is well known. It is at the SE angle of the Haram platform (sūq al-ma^crifa, a curious mystical name). It is known that Ghazāli went to meditate on his Iliyā (with his Qisṭās [Qusṭās] and Miḥakk) 100 meters from there, in the zāwiya Naṣriyya (installed between the modern "Golden Gate" and the middle hidden door — Bāb al-Raḥma and Bāb al-tawba of early toponymy, following Qur. 57:13), one or two years before the taking of the city by the Crusaders. N.B. Abd al-Wāḥid ibn Zayd affirms that Khiḍr resides in the Haram, between the Bāb al-Raḥma and the Bāb al-Asbāt, and that on Friday he prays, alternately, in Jerusalem and Mecca (Maqdisi, Muthir, ms. Paris 1669, f. 99b).

^{99.} See below, n 123 and related text.

^{100.} It is said, also, "on the outskirts of Zughar" (sic).

tor. The "Gate of Jericho" disappeared from toponymy with the Frankish occupation. The "Tomb of the Prophets" suggests the Jewish cemetery of Kidron, between Gethsemane and Siloah. But the mention of "John son of Zacharias" certainly indicates the two chapels of John and Zacharias, to the left as one enters al-Aqsā (where Ibn Adham loved to pray). The khānqāh should therefore be identified with the zāwiya Khataniya of today (attached to the south wall of the Haram).

^{102.} Yaqut, Buldan, II, 393; Marasid, I, 336.

^{103.} Hachwia et nahita, 1901.

^{104.} Additional notes on Ibn Karrām: ^cUmar ibn Hy. Naysabūrī Samarqandī (d. c. 501 A.H.) and his Rawnaq al-qulūb (mss. P. 4929 and 6674) must be consulted; his isnād goes back, through Abū Naṣr A. Samarqandī (d. 455 A.H., under Tughril), to the book of Abū'l-Abbās A. ibn Ishāq ibn Mamshādh (Manāqib al-imām Ishāq), to Ishāq ibn Mamshādh. The Rawnaq shows Ibn Karrām spending two days with his friend Abū Yazīd Bisṭāml (ms. P. 6674, f. 35b); offering a candle at the Holy

HIS METHOD OF EXPOSITION AND HIS WORKS 105

Like two other contemporary moralists, Anṭākī and Muḥāsibī, Ibn Karrām presents his teachings in the form of hadīth; most (about a thousand) of these traditions, which call for reformed ways and ascetic mortification (taqashshuf), are given as coming from Ibn Harb; others from Mākyānī. 106 Samcānī remarks that some others from among these hadīth are given as coming from Aḥmad ibn ʿAbdallāh Jawbiyārī and Muḥammad ibn Tamīm Firyābī, two forgers of false isnād "whose unscrupulousness was not known to Ibn Karrām." 107 The dubious sources were later fully exploited against him and his disciples; critics could claim that the Karrāmiyya were teaching 108 "the permissibility (tajwīz) of fabricating hadīth designed to inculcate fear of God (tarhīb) and desire for Paradise (targhīb)."

None of these works seems to have survived the persecutions that destroyed the Karrāmiyyan colleges; there remain only quotations that opponents compiled for purposes of polemic. The Shāficite qāḍī Abū Jacfar Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad ibn Isḥāq made a collection of them, (Alf) faḍā²iḥ Ibn Karrām.¹09 In the same genre of source, there are three extracts of the Adhāb al-qabr¹10 in Baghdādī (on jawhar, carsh),¹11 and two extracts from the Kitāb al-sirr in Ibn al-Dāci¹12 (the epigraph, taken from Qur. 56:78, and a proposition on how difficult it is for reason to explain that God should have permitted the lion [or man, for that matter] to kill other animals in order to feed himself).¹13 Baghdādī mocked the technical terms that Ibn Karrām had forged (in the form faclūliyya) for new concepts and introduced into scholastic philosophy.¹14

Sepulchre (ms. P. 4929, f. 52a = ms. P 6674, f. 35b); with Ibn Harb (6674, 59a); in prison (6674, 37a); in his madrasas in Herat (6674, 48a) and Samarqand (4929, 53a, 54a); and dying (4929, 48a). It shows his asceticism and contempt for the world (4929, 51b, 60b); and it prints his wasiyya to Ma²mūn Sulami (4929, 35b), from which Birūni (Chom. 287) reproduces the piece on the tomb of Joseph of Arimathea. Another work by the same author, the Saun al-akhbār (ms. P. 5039), mentions the Mazyadite prince Sadaqa (d. 501). The two mosques built within view of Segor (Zughat) in 352 A.H. (cf. Rev. Et. Isl., 1952, 81) by Abū Bakr Sabbāḥi seem to be Kartāmiyyan. Ibn Yazdānyār (ms. P. 1369, 163b) quotes a saying of Ibn Kartām.

^{105.} Which were written down under his dictation by someone named Ma²mūn ibn Ahmad Sulami Harawi, of whom it is known only that he passed through Damascus in 250.

^{106.} Indirect disciple of Hammād ibn Zayd, through Ibn CUyayna and Ibn al-Mubārak; briefly suspected of irjā?

^{107.} The remark is Sameani's.

^{108.} Ulaymi, Uns jalil, I, 262.

^{109.} Ibn al-Dācī, 387.

^{110.} Cf. Passion Fr 3: 169/Eng 3:157.

^{111.} Farq, 203, 206, 207.

^{112.} Ibn al-Daci 381, 383.

^{113.} A Manichaean or Hindu ascetic argument, considered so that it may be refuted.

^{114.} Farq, 207: haythüthiyya, kayfiifiyya (on the model rubübiyya; cf. ghaybüba of Bistāmi; and kaynūniyya of Makki, Qūt, II, 88).

HIS DOCTRINE 113

Despite the contemptuous accusations accumulated against him, Ibn Karrām stands out as one of the great thinkers of Muslim scholasticism. The Sunni school that he founded would last three centuries. Its members converted eastern Khurāsān and Afghanistan as far as India, and they conceived the first Sunni religious schools. On all the questions raised by Mu^ctazilite inquiry, they provided rich illumination and new, precise analysis, ¹¹⁶ not only supported by solid reflection but verified by extended mystical and moral experimentation. The great interest of the Karrāmiyya (and the Bakriyya and Sālimiyya) is that they revised contemporary scholastic vocabulary in the light of the constants observed through mystical introspection. Moreover, the Karrāmiyya supplied Māturīdī with Ḥanafite scholasticism's corpus of classical doctrine.

Ibn Karram begins by accepting the preeminence of thought (i^ctibar) in the hierarchy of beings, and the natural role of reason (fagl). 117 However, like Antākī and Muhāsibī, he limits reason's powers, which are exaggerated by the Muctazilites (tahsin for Ibn Karram, but not nicaya). Though he uses reason, he is a spiritualist; he distinguishes the responsibility of the agent from the imputability of the act. 118 His work is a very careful general revision of scholastic terminology, with regard to which he takes a critical position, balanced between the attitudes of the Muctazilites and the ahl alhadith (Hashwiyya). Analyzing the conditions of canonical acts, he differentiates (a) faith (3 man), the formal acceptance of monotheism; (b) the state of grace of the heart that is devoting itself (tuma nina = ma nifa); and (c) the external performance that signifies the act of devotion (islām = fard al-camal). 119 He revises three well-known technical terms: jabr, irjā, shakk [Recueil, p. 24]. Jabr, determinism, is 120 the claim that "grace (istitaca) intervenes only at the moment of the act,"121 not "saying that God creates our acts and imbeds evil in the divine qadar" (Muctazilites) or "the intervention of grace only before the act" (ahl al-hadīth). Irjā, latitudinarianism, means "not counting the external accomplishment of the act" (plurality of the macani in God), and does not mean either "refusing (waaf) to believe that sinners will be damned" (Muctazilites) or "affirming the primacy" of

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115. Baghdādī, Farq, 202-14; Shahrastānī, Milal, l, 143-54; lbn al-Dā<sup>c</sup>ī, 381-84.

116. Ghazālī, Tahāfut, I, 22.

117. Passion, Fr 3:112, 70/Eng 3:100, 59-60.

118. lbid., Fr 3:87-88/Eng 3:76-77.

119. lbid., Fr 3:116, 65, 117, 163/Eng 3:105, 55, 105, 150. Cf. ap. lbn al-Farrā (Mu<sup>c</sup>tamad): 

<sup>2</sup>imān = "iqrār bi"-shahādatayn dūn tuma ninat al-qalb."

120. Muqaddasī, Alisān al-taqāsim (written in 375/985).

121. Passion, Fr 3:121 n 4/Eng 3:109 n 77.

122. Not anteriority (cf. Passion, Fr 3:162 l. 3-4/Eng 3:149 no. 6).
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faith over works" (ahl al-hadith). Sliakk, skepticism, means "making istithnā as to one's own faith," 123 not "refusing to judge whether the Quroan is created or uncreated" (Muctazilites) or "freely comparing opposed theological theses" 124 (ahl al-hadith). For Ibn Karrām, jism ("body") = al-mustaghnī can al-mahall ("that which is its own place"), against the Muctazila [Rec. 24].

In theodicy, Ibn Karrām does not succeed so fully in freeing himself from the influence of Mu^ctazilī language. Denouncing the bizarre divine attributes that are "imagined outside the essence and without a suppositum* (lā fi maļiall)" by the Mu^ctazilites, ¹²⁵ Ibn Karrām conceives an unsound inverse term, i.e., the "production" of events "inside the divine essence (iḥdāth fi'l-dhāt)." ¹²⁶ He means that God really intervenes with the special graces He grants to perishable beings (He is positively interested in men), in order to attest to the actuality of His fiat's (Kun) visitation in them. Ibn Karrām himself, foreseeing the objection to this theory, declares that he absolutely excludes any possibility of complication in the Essence (aḥadī al-jawhar), any intrusion (ḥulūl) by the contingent into the transcendent (cazama, istiwā). ¹²⁷

C. Ibn Karrāni's Commentators

For almost two centuries, and even after Māturidi (d. 340), the majority of the Ḥanafites who were careful to maintain an orthodox, anti-Mu^ctazi-lite theological doctrine declared themselves to be of Ibn Karrām's school:

(third century): Ibrahīm ibn Muḥammad ibn Sufyān; Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad Dahbān; 128 the preacher 'Abdallah ibn Muḥammad Qayrāṭi (d. 309); Ibrahīm ibn Ḥajjāj, who converted a famous Shāfi cite, Muḥammad ibn Ghaylān, to Karrāmism; Abū'l-Faḍl Tamīmī, qāḍī of Isfahān (d. 282, friend of 'Alī b. Sahl); Ibrāhīm Khawwāṣ, H. Mikālī, and Ibn Qutayba (according to Bayhaqī, ap. preface to Ibn Qutayba's Maysir, 12; and Kawtharī, preface to Ibn Qutayba's Ikhtilāf fi'l-lafz, 2). 129

- * Mahall is now usually translated "substratum."
- 123. Ibn Karram was the first to make a proper statement of this thorny problem (Passian, Fr 3:100 n 5/Eng 3:89 n 241; I was wrong to use the word "fideism" about him, because he defines the word "faith" more strictly than in common Islamic usage), that of the believer's right to say "I am a believer." For Ibn Karram (as not for most doctors of the law), this enunciation does not mean, "I am sure of my salvation"; it is therefore licit.
 - 124. Passion, Fr 3:66 n 8, 62 n 1, 69/Eng 3:57 n 24, 53 n 1, 59-60.
 - 125. To safeguard divine simplicity.
 - 126. Passion, Fr 3:120, 122, 147/Eng 3:108, 110, 134: Tiad and i dam.
- 127. Ibid., Fr 3:73, 98, 137, 151/Eng 3:63, 87, 124, 138 (taklists al-qudra). On his theory of the prophets, cf. Passion, Fr 3:210-12/Eng 3:198-99.
- 128. Ibn Qutayba (d. 276) seems to have joined the school (his Ta'wil, 208, on tafdil al-ghani; and his polemic against the Hashwiyya).
- 129. I have had to strike Ibn Khuzayma (223-311) from this list because he condemned Ibn Karram, according to Ibn Hajar (Lisān, V, 356).

(fourth century): Ibrāhīm ibn Muhājir; Aḥmad ibn ʿAbdūs Ṭarā ʾifi (d. 347), probable founder of a subsect; Abū Isḥāq ibn Mamshādh (d. 383)¹³⁰ and his son Abū Bakr (d. 410), who celebrated Ibn Karrām as a "model man of religion, a second prophet"; Abū ʿAmr Bazzāz, who set Ibn Karrām,¹³¹ as an apostle, before Muḥammad; the refined poet al-ʿAmīd abū'l-Fatḥ ʿAlī ibn Muḥammad Bustī (d. 401), whose qaṣīda on Sufism has remained famous; and the great Ḥanafite historian and critical traditionist of Nīshāpūr, al-Ḥākim ibn al-Bayyi ʿDabbī (d. 403). At the end of this period, a theological duel between Ash ʿarites and Karrāmīs began. The Ash ʿarite Ibn Fūrak was killed, but Maḥmūd II signed an edict, which was proclaimed everywhere, outlawing the Karrāmiyya and cursing them as "anthropomorphists." ¹¹²²

(fifth century): Under Qādir (d. 422), Muḥammad Ibn al-Hayṣam¹³³ presented a detailed justification of Karrāmism's technical terms; his views remained the dominant doctrine in Persia until 488/1095, when the Shā-fi^cis and Ḥanafis made a coalition and sacked the colleges of Nīshāpūr.

(sixth century): Abū'l-Qāsim ibn Ḥusayn of Nīshāpūr and his disciple Abū'l-Qāsim Muwaffaq ibn Muḥammad Bijistānī Maydānī (c. 520). 134

The Ghūrid princes of the time were Karrāmiyya. But the Ash^carite Fakhr Rāzī, who had been expelled from Herat in 595/1198 as a "philosopher" by the qāḍī Majd al-Din 'Abd al-Majīd ibn 'Umar Quduwwa, chief of the Karrāmiyya Hayṣamiyya, took his revenge by converting the prince of Ghūr to Shāfi cism (and to Ash^carism). ¹³⁵ Then Karrāmism disappeared, just as its apostolate had opened India to Islam.

Only one work of Ibn Karrām's school has yet been discovered: an anonymous untitled manuscript in the British Museum (ms. Or. 8049), dated 731. It is an extremely diverse collection of moral and philosophicomystical traditions, the majority of which are without isnād. The isnād of the others is of the pattern, 136 "My father told me, Abū Yacqūb Jurjānī told me: according to Macmān ibn Aḥmad, according to cAlī ibn Isḥāq, according to Muḥammad ibn Marwān (Suddī), according to al-Kalbī, ac-

^{130.} Controversy with the Shiite Abū'l-Barakat Alawi (Ibn al-Dāci, 383).

^{131. &}quot;He was more mortified; he spoke more; he neither made war nor killed." (Ibid., 381).

^{132.} Harawi, Dhamm, f. 1182; cf. Utbi.

^{133.} Died perhaps in 407 (compare Ibn al-Athir, 1X, 209); his grandson Ali ibn Abdallah ibn Muhammad ibn al-Hayşam Harawl was one of Abū'l-Ḥasan Bayhaql's (d. 565/1169) teachers (Yaqūt, Udabā, V, 233). On Ibn al-Hayşam, consult the large extracts from his Kitāb al-maqālāt preserved by his adversary Fakhr Rāzī (ap. As as [sometimes Asās] al-taqdīs, 79, 88, etc., from Ibn Fürak), and by sympathizers such as Ibn abi'l-Ḥadid (Sharḥ nahj al-balāgha, 1, 296-99; II, 129) and Ibn Taymiyya (Naql; Minhāj, 11, 24-25). The qādī Zammouri of Casablanca wrote to me on the Karrāmiyyan propsitions.

^{134.} On this list, see Subki II, 53-54, 130; III, 53; Yaqût, Buldān, I, 97; Ibn al-Athit, X, 171; Ibn Ajiba, I, 6; E. G. Browne, Chohār maqāla, 59; Suyûti, Khulafā, s.v. "Qādir."

^{135.} Ibn al-Athir, Kāmil XII, 99-101, 148.

^{136.} Ms. London Or. 8049, f. 29b.

cording to Abū Ṣāliḥ, according to Ibn ʿAbbās ..." This is "Maʾmūn" is Sulamī, Ibn Karrām's editor, and the last three links of the isnād form a chain identified as a fabrication by Dhahabī in his I ctidāl. 137 Ibn Karrām is cited as an authority in this manuscript, 138 which I would like to attribute to Abū Bakr ibn Isḥāq ibn Mamshādh (d. 410). Furthermore, the classification of heresies adopted by the Ḥanafite heresiographers, for example Nasafī, 139 depends directly on Ibn Karrām. 140

D. Ibn Karrām's Mystic Disciples: Yaḥya ibn Mu^cādh, Makḥūl, the Banū Mamshādh

The most illustrious is Yaḥyā ibn Mu^cādh Rāzī (d. 258/871 at Nīshāpūr),¹⁴¹ who must have followed Ibn Karrām's rule for living since he published it word for word, except for the following three adjustments and alterations: ¹⁴² "The strength of the heart is in five things: reading the Qur²ān with meditation (tafakkur), keeping the stomach empty, waking at night (to pray), humbling oneself before God at dawn, frequenting the pious." He follows Ibn Karrām's doctrine of tafḍīl al-ghanī. ¹⁴³ Yaḥyā is the first to have professed a "course" of mysticism in public in the mosques; ¹⁴⁴ he is also the first to admit his love for God in verse of a direct style. ¹⁴⁵ His prayers (munājāt) and sayings have a contrite, confident humility, a timid, budding freshness not to be found afterwards: ¹⁴⁶

O my God! My argument (that I invoke) is my need; my provisions (to which I have recourse) are my nudity; my way of access to You is Your grace bestowed upon me; my intercessor with You is Your beneficence for my sake!

Works that vanish like a mirage, a heart with crumbling piety, sins as numerous as grains of sand or dust; and, with these, to desire "heavenly maidens, companions of the same age as you 147?" Stop! You are drunk, though you have not drunk any wine!

- 137. S.v. However, the chain cannot be treated lightly because it figures in the Ma^cāni'l-Qur²ān of the great grammarian Farrā (d. 203), as follows: "Farrā-Ḥayyān-Kalbī-Abū Ṣāliḥ-Ibn 'Abbās." This might be the thread leading back to a reconstruction of Ibn 'Abbās's real doctrine, misrepresented through so many false imād.
 - 138. Ms. London Or. 8049, f. 27b.
 - 139. Who, besides, is a direct descendent of Makhol Nasafi.
- 140. He gives the same definition of shakk, inja, jabr; and makes the same condemnation of Marisi.
 - 141. Attar, 1, 298-312.
 - 142. [Recueil, p. 26.] Cf. herein, ch. 5 n 96; Hilya.
 - 143. Passion, Fr 3:239/Eng 3:225-26.
 - 144. Herein, text at ch. 4 n 107.
 - 145. Sarrāj, Maṣāric, 181. Miṣrī was still masking it with allegories.
 - 146. Taken from the Hilya [Recueil, p. 26].
 - 147. Qur. 78:33; cf. herein, ch. 4 n 485 and related text.

O my God! How should I rejoice, though I have offended You; but how should I not rejoice, knowing (henceforth) who You are? How should I invoke You, sinner that I am; but how should I not invoke You, the Merciful!¹⁴⁸

If you are not content with God, how can you ask Him to be content with you?

The night is long, and you will not shorten it by dreaming (instead of praying); the day is pure, do not stain it with your sins. 149

Let those whom God hates say, "Pardon!" And let those who are pardoned remain silent. The former say, "Pardon!" but their hearts remain sinful; the latter are silent, but they remember God.

Two accidents happen to a man when he dies (said Yaḥyā to Makḥūl). Everything is taken from him, and everything is asked of him. 150

He who knows his soul knows his God. 151

What a difference between going to a wedding for the sake of the feast, and going to a wedding to be with the Beloved! 152

Take solitude for a house, hunger for food, prayer for conversation; then you must either die of your illness or find the cure. 153

O my God! do not forget, I have been a guide on the road that leads to You, and I have witnessed that supremacy is Yours! Here, see raised towards You my hands left to rust by sin and my eyes made up with the antimony (kuhl) of hope! 154 Receive me, for You are a generous King; and pardon me, weak servant that I am.

This last invocation, quite characteristic of Yaḥyā, is almost laxist. To bring absolution, the call from the intelligence to the divine glory needs to be accompanied in the will by a glimmer of attrition at least. Yaḥyā often shows an excessive sense of security in God's mercy: "If I had the authority to judge, I would not condemn lovers, for they are constrained to sin and do not consent."

During his lifetime, Yaḥyā was criticized for not remaining, as he preached, strictly in poverty, and for not enduring trials to the end. "Poor Yaḥyā," said Bisṭāmī, "he does not know how to suffer adversity (dūn)! How could he bear happiness (bakht)?" 155 The controversy between Yaḥyā

^{148. &}quot;Kayf ad^cūka wa ana² khāṭī wakayf lā ad^cūka wa anta karīm?" (weakened in Suhaylī's version, ms. Paris 643, f. 81b).

^{149. &}quot;Al-layl tawil, fală yaqşur bimanamika, wa'l-nahar naqı, fala tudannishu bi athamika."

^{150.} Ibn Arabi, Muliad., II, 270.

^{151.} Cf. Passion, Fr 3:46 n 5/Eng 3:38 n 96; criticized by Ibn Arabī (cf. Goldziher, Streitschrift, ed. of Ghazālī's Mustazhirī, 113).

^{152.} Passion, Fr 3:48 n 5/Eng 3:40 n 106.

^{153.} lbn Arabi, Muliad., II, 370 (cf. 287, 288, 316, 363, 364).

^{154.} Taken up in a quatrain of Ibn abl'l-Khayr.

^{155.} About his clothes; Sarraj, Luma, 188. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:239/Eng 3:225.

and Bisṭāmī is symbolized by a cup of "wine": 156 Yaḥyä, after one drop, says his thirst is quenched, but Bisṭāmī, drunk, with his tongue hanging out, demands, "Is there any more?" He says: "I have drunk Love, cup after cup; / There was no lack of wine, but I am still thirsty."

Among the disciples of Yaḥyä, 157 those we can claim with certainty as Karrāmīs are Ibrahīm Khawwāṣ 158 and especially his student Abū Muṭī Makhūl ibn Faḍl Nasafī of Balkh (d. 319), whose curious manual for communal living 159 has survived; it is a marked attenuation of Anṭākī's and Muḥāsibī's rules, and it was followed among monastic "brotherhoods."

Mysticism is but one aspect of the Karrāmiyyan religious life; when faced with a case as pronounced as that of Ḥallāj, their theological school seems to have maintained a prudent, if not mistrustful, reserve, or so would indicate Abū Bakr ibn Mamshādh's discreet account of Ḥallāj's trial, which I have published to (with an erroneous note on the genealogy of the Banū Mamshādh family to that appears to have supplied two centuries of leaders to the Karrāmiyya school).

If we are to believe the hagiographers of Indo-Persian Sufism, who put Mamshādh Dīnawarī at the top of the list of saints venerated by the Suhrawardiyya, then that order is of Karrāmī origin. We know that ^cUmar Suhrawardī (d.632/1234) denounced the "misdeeds of Greek philosophy" ¹⁶² in the same tone in which the Karrāmiyyan qāḍī Majd al-Dīn denounced the

157. Abū Uthmān Hīrī (Kashf, 133), Yūsuf ibn Husayn Rāzi.

160. Passion, Fr 1:575/Eng 1:528.

162. În his Rashf nasa ili simaniyya fi fada ih yawnaniyya, which Mas ad Shirazi (d. 655) an-

swered in three short works (Ibn Junayd, Shadd, 37).

^{156.} On mystical union (Qush. 173; Sha^crāwī, Tab., 1, 76; Zarrūq, Rawḍ., II, 294b; Maqdisī, Bad? II, 80).

^{158.} Who also accepted Ibn Karrām's rule for living (Amili, Kashkil, 197; cf. herein, index).

^{159.} Ms. Aya Şūfiya 4801, in 29 chapters [Retueil, p. 25]: brotherhood in God; pious works; being open with one's brothers (two chapters); hospitality; discretion and teserve; gifts and alms; the sālikūn; choosing one's companions; solitude; unfriendliness and cordiality; letters exchanged among the pious; modesty (two chapters); sayings of the ascetics about death; virtues and wishes; penitence and asking forgiveness; reminding others to observe the law; renouncing vainglory and affectation; the agony of death; various brief maxims; sayings of the ascetics on illness; furnishings; holy war; leaving possessions to one's heirs; cemeteries and their inhabitants; the importance of being mindful of God; weep from fear of God; the resurrection (copied in 610 A.H.). Makhūl is perhaps the first author of the manual of Ḥanafite heresiography said to be by Nasafi (ms. Ox. Poc. 271, studied by Thatcher).

^{161.} Passion, 1st ed., 259 n 3 [Fr 1:375/Eng 1:528, notes]. The true genealogical table is as follows: (a) Mamshādh Dinawarī, a well-known ascetic, d. 299; (b) his son Abū Bakr I, rāwī of the story about Ḥallāj; (c) the grandson, Abū Yacqūb Ishāq ibn Mamshādh Karrāmī, who died at Nīshāpūr on the 25th of Rajab 383, after an ascetic life including a fertile apostolate (conversion of five thousand kitābīs and Mazdeans in the city), as recounted by Ibn al-Bayyic; (d) the great-grandson, Abū Bakr II Muḥammad ibn Ishāq ibn Mamshādh, d. 410, who was, at first, the spiritual adviser to Maḥmūd of Ghazna, at whose court he was all-powerful [being more willing than Khurqānī to accommodate the ptince's liaison with Ayāz] before being forced out by the Ash-carites; (e) a last descendent, Mamshādh II, who was mentioned in 488 as chief of the Karrāmiyya of Nīshāpūr. Cf. Subki, III, 223, on another (possible) membet of this family.

"philosophy" of Fakhr Rāzī. And CUmar Suhrawardī (of Baghdād) wrote the Iclām al-hudā (= caqīdat arbāb al-tuqā), a sort of dogmatic profession of faith, very short and dense, which is still consulted today. Experimental mystical vocabulary (ḥayāt, tasha shu nūr al-īqān fi'l-qalb, cazama, iḥtirāq bi'l-tajallī) gave him theological formulas, related to Ibn Karrām's, that suggest an intermediate position between Ḥanbalism and Ash arism.

3. Two Isolated Cases: Bistāmī and Tirmidhī

A. Bisţāmī

HIS LIFE

The biography of Abū Yazīd Ṭayfūr ibn CIsā ibn Surushān¹⁶³ Bisṭāmī Akbar¹⁶⁴ (vulgo "Bāyazīd Bisṭāmī") is far from complete. Dāsitānī's tales, accepted by Aṭṭār, on Bisṭāmī's beginnings in the service of Imām Jacfar, are grossly unrealistic as to time and place. In fact, he must have remained throughout his life in his native city of Bisṭām, except when the hostility of the Ṭāhirī faqīh Ḥusayn ibn Isā Bisṭāmī forced him to leave. The date of his death, 15 Shacbān 260 (= 25 May 874) seems certain; it is corroborated by what is known of his relations with Ibn Ḥarb, Yaḥyā Rāzī, and Abū Mūsā. 165

The details of his psychological development and religious education are lacking; he first studied sacred law (Ḥanafite), which he claims to have explained to Abū ^cAlī Sindī. ¹⁶⁶ Sindī, in exchange, taught him the fanā bi'ltawḥīd, a method of prayer to be studied below. Bisṭāmī was a rugged, solitary spirit who refused all signs of brotherly affiliation, even with lbn Ḥarb or Miṣrī. ¹⁶⁷ Nevertheless, he maintained an awareness of mystical literature, as Dubaylī proves in a curious anecdote. ¹⁶⁸ In Bisṭām his tomb is still venerated; he has a maqām at Bahdaliyya near Damascus. ¹⁶⁹

^{163.} Mazdean.

^{164.} As opposed to Tayfür Saghir (herein, p. 184).

^{165.} Iliya, IV, 160, 187.

t66. Sarrāj, Lunac, 177; Baqlī, Shafli, f. 27; Qush, IV, 169. His comment: "There is a state in which it seems I am 'I,' in myself, as in every being; there is another state in which I am 'He,' to Him, in Himself." I think this Sindī is 'AR Sindī, who was the teacher of Bistāmi, according to the only hadīth he transmitted (Sahlagī, Nūr, f. 25), and a student, through 'Amr ibn Qays Mula'ī and Aṭiyya 'Urfī, of Abū Sa'īd Khudarī (this chain of three names is that of the hadīth of Ibn Kathīr, cited herein, ch. 5 n 3).

^{167.} Attar, I, 144; Bagli, Shath, f. 46.

^{168.} Makki, Qüt, II, 63.

^{169.} Rifa^ct, Rawda, 97. Also, Dermenghem has made a photograph of a maqām of Bistāmī, at Bakti (O. Zousfana, around Oran). There is one in Egypt as well (at Girga: Alt Pasha Mubarak, XII, 5). [Photos in Essai.]

SOURCES

In the fourth century: the hikāyāt of Ibn Farrukhān Dūrī, who received them from Junayd; 170 and those of Ali ibn abd al-Rahim Qannad (d. c. 340), ⁽⁷⁾ who gathered the large collection of tales of Abū Mūsa Dubayli. Bistāmī's direct disciple. 172 In the fifth century, Abū Abdallāh Muhammad ibn Ali Dasitani (d. 417) renovated Bistami's doctrine and dictated to his favorite disciple (talmidh), Abū'l-Fadl Muhammad ibn Alī Sahlagī (b. 389; d. Jum. II 476), 173 the elements of the Kitāb al-nūr, a collection 174 of Bistāmī's sentences, now preserved in manuscript in the Mevlevi tekke of Aleppo. 175 Dāsitānī's isnāds, when they do not come from previous collection, are suspect; he refers principally, by way of Tayfur Bistami Şaghir, to a man called CUmayy, 176 an indirect disciple of Bistāmī; attenuated variants of Bistāmi's statements are intentionally introduced. Another work, the Munājāt, is a collection made by Khurqānī (d. 426) of Bistāmī's prayers. 177 Attār's sixthcentury biography 178 is stuffed with legend; Baqli's commentary on the master's principal sayings, in the Shathiyat, 179 have been the object of much study. I do not know when to date the Persian managib of a certain Yusuf ibn Muhammad, 180 or the "Conversations between Bistami and a Monk," 181 a simple apocryphal pamphlet that says he has made forty-five pilgrimages and depicts him converting an entire monastery "in Rum."

HIS WORKS

Bisțămi wrote nothing, and his disciples, who did not form a school until a century after his death, were able to collect only isolated fragments, stories, and sayings. The longest of these constitute two collections, Shaṭaḥāt and Munājāt. The former were probably collected by Ibn Farrukhān Dūrī;

170. On Düri, see Dhahabi, I^ctidāl; Qush. IV, 112, 173; and Passion, Fr 3:267/Eng 3:250. He is probably the editor of the Shatahāt examined by Sarrāj (Luma^c, 380-94).

171. On him, consult Passion, Fr 1:267/Eng 1:250.

172. Extracts, ap. Sahlagi, Nür.

173. Samcani, f. 812; Hujwiri, Kashf, 164.

174. Very Hallajized in places (f. 32 [Layla ana'], 93 [verse] 135-40).

175. The pagination is that of my copy, the Kitāb al-nīīr has since been published by AR Badawi in the first volume of his Shataliāt al-Sīīfiyya (devoted to Bistāmī), 37-148. Sahlagī also wrote a Kitāb rūļi al-nīļi (ms. Paris Supp. turc 983, pp. 1442-1544).

176. Sahlagi (Nūr, f. 108) explicitly identifies Umayy with Abū Imrān Mūsā Isā ibn Adam,

grand-nephew of Bistami (v.i., ch. 5 n 350).

177. Preserved in Turkish translation with preface (Schefer Turkish ms. 1019, Mihrshäh ms. 202); cf. Ashir ms. 452.

178. Tadhkira, I, 134-79.

179. Pp. 27-51.

180. Cited by Hajj Khalifa (cf. Fanh, 5334).

181. Sa lat al-ruliban, ms. Paris 1913, f. 1952-1962; Fatih, 5381.

their author tells various ecstatic stories (Sarrāj reproduces three of these in his Luma^c)¹⁸² on Bistāmi's mi^crāj or "spiritual ascension," with a commentary by Junayd (perhaps authentic).¹⁸⁴ The munājāt, prayers, of the second collection, edited by Khurqānī, seem to be in an altered, weakened state.

HIS LEADING PROPOSITIONS

A former Hanafite (min ahl al-ra²y) with Mu^ctazilī tendencies, then a convert, Bisṭāmī is a figure without peer. Later the eponym of several Ottoman sultans,¹⁸⁵ he became the model of the perfect Muslim ascetic. Reacting violently against the Karrāmiyya's resigned renunciation and the slightly indolent confidence of Yaḥyā Rāzī, he devoted himself to an implacable,¹⁸⁶ forced program of ascetic training, thereby freeing his teeming intelligence for its magnificent flights; he did not ask enough of the humble wait for divine grace. "For twelve years ¹⁸⁷ I was the smith forging my self, for five years I was the mirror of my heart; for one year I observed both my self and my heart; I discovered a belt of infidelity (zunnār) around me, and I took twelve years to cut it; then I discovered an inner belt, which I took five years to cut; finally I had an illumination; I considered the creation; I saw it had become a corpse to me, and I said four ¹⁸⁸ takbīr for it (i.e., I buried it, and it did not exist for me any more)!"

Bisṭāmī was the first to make an open proclamation of the goal desired but barely perceived by his predecessors, Rabāḥ, Ibn Adham, Ibn Zayd, and Dārānī, i.e., isolation before the pure unity of God (tajnā al-tawḥīd). We shall review the method of contemplation he used to reach this end. The method led to an attempted meeting of the soul and the divine Essence, in which Ibn Arabī and his followers believed they saw their own monism. They were probably wrong. How did you achieve this?" "I was stripped of my self, as a serpent sheds its skin; then I considered my essence, and I was He!" God considered the consciences in the uni-

^{182.} Pp. 382, 387, 384.

^{183.} The diluted, nontechnical text that 'Attar published under this name is posterior to these fragments. Nicholson published a late version of Bistami's mi'raj.

^{184.} Though it is Hallajized.

^{185.} Abū Yazid-Bayezid-Bajazet.

^{186. [}Recueil, pp. 28-29, for this note and the following notes containing quotations.] "I have so loved God that I hate myself, and so hated the world that I love obedience to God" (ap. Baqli, I, 78).

^{187.} Sahlagi, f. 40-41 [Recueil, p. 28]; Kilani, Chunya, II, 159.

^{188.} In Sunni and Zaydi usage; the Shiites say five. Parallel texts: "Cast away your carnal self and come!" "I had a mirror; then I became a mirror." "One night among nights I was looking for my heart, and I could not find it; at dawn, I heard a voice saying, 'O Abū Yazld! What are you doing, looking for something besides Us?" (Sahlagi, Nūr).

^{189.} Herein, p. 189.

^{190.} Birani, Hind, I, 43. A saying taken up by Jäkir Kurdi (Shattanawfi, Bahja, 168).

verse and saw that all were empty of Him except mine, in which He saw Himself in all His fullness. 191 Then He said, praising me, 'The entire world is in slavery to Me, except you'"; Nibājī, endorsed by Jurayrī, notes that Bisṭāmī might have added in conclusion, "because I am you." 192 The remark shows that Bisṭāmī was not consciously a monist, and that his God transcends him. Though he possessed acute intuition and an unprecedented firmness of will, Bisṭāmī's intelligence was greater than his love. He never paused in his abstract pursuit of an external, impassive perception of the divine Essence, laid bare to his infinite humility; but the overwhelming vision never ravished his heart in the transforming union of love, and consequently his invocations contain some strangely proud outbursts: "You obey me more than I obey You!"; 193 on Qur. 85:12, "I seize you more firmly than You seize me!"; 194 or, on the muezzin's cry ("Allāh Akbar!"), "I am greater still!"; 195 and his saying to a disciple, "It is better for you to see me once than to see God a thousand times!" 196

HIS RECONSTRUCTION OF MUHAMMAD'S ECSTACY OF THE Qāb qawsayn (Mi^crāj)¹⁹⁷

Bistāmī was banished from the city of his birth several times for "claiming to have made a mi^crāj (Nocturnal Ascension), like the Prophet's." Indeed, Bistāmī is the first Muslim mystic whose Qur³ānic meditation resulted in an inner reconstruction of Muḥammad's ecstasy. Here are the details of the experiment, recorded in his Shatahāt: 198

1.

He ravished me once and placed me before Him, saying, "O Abū Yazīd! My creatures desire to see you." And I said to Him, "Make me beautiful in your unicity, clothe me in your ipseity (anāniyya), seize me in Your oneness so that when Your creatures see me they will say, 'We have seen You'; and You will be where I am no more."

Here Junayd's commentary is pertinent: "This request proves that Bis-

^{191.} Weakened version, in Baqli, I, 141: "God contemplated the world, and in it He saw no one worthy to understand Him; then He busied men in His service (as slaves)."

^{192.} Qannād, Hikāyāt (in Sahlagī, Nūr). "Abū Yazīd, Jurayrī says, was removed from the state of slavery (the normal one, that of all creatures), but he did not perceive the state to which God had raised Him."

^{193.} Sha rawi, Lata'if, I, 125.

^{194.} lbid., 1, 126.

^{195.} Baqli, Shath., f. 35; cf. Hallaj, in Passion, Fr 3:215/Eng 3:203.

^{196.} Sha rawi, Lata'if, I, 126.

^{197.} See the detailed account in Passion, Fr 3:311 ff/Eng 3:293 ff.

^{198.} Ap. Sarraj, Lumac, 382, 387, 384.

tāmī was very close, without being there. What follows shows that he saw how to get there."

ii.

Once, I reached the arena of nonbeing (laysiyya) and flew there continually for ten years, until I had passed from the "No" to the "No" by means of the "No." Then I attained Privation (tadyīc), which is the arena of tawhīd, and I flew continually by means of the "No," in Want, until I wanted want in want, and was deprived of privation by the "No" in the "No," in the want of Privation. Then I attained tawhīd, in the distancing (ghaybūba) of the creation from the carif (= himself) and in the distancing of the carif from the creation.

111

As soon as I had come to His unicity, I became a bird whose body is oneness and whose two wings are eternity, and I flew continually for ten years in the air of similitude; and in those years I saw myself in the same skies a hundred million times. I did not stop flying until I came to the arena of Preeternity. There I perceived the tree of oneness. (He describes its earth, its trunk, its branches, leaves and fruits.) I contemplated it, and I knew that it was all a snare (khad^ca). 200

These texts are an experimental commentary on the Qāb qawsayn (Qur. 53:6-17), a setting of boundaries around the transcendence of God, isolated from all secondary causes and withheld from all that is created. Bisṭāmī bitterly observes that even this concept, though it self-evidently belongs to monotheism, is nothing but deception, khad a. Maintaining the intellect in simple contemplation, as a mirror exposed to the flashing attributes of the divine Majesty, would result only in the destruction of the mystic's personality. 201

THE DIVINE SAYINGS AND THE "Subhānī"

Then, at the pinnacle of intellectual ecstasy, Bistāmī observed, and tried to overcome, his inability to effect union. Where Muhammad had merely articulated the Qur²ānic revelation indirectly, repeating it in the second person, Bistāmī attempted to become aware of it in the first person, identifying himself first with the various created subjects ("I am the seven sleepers! I am the Throne of God!" I am your Supreme Lord!" [as Pharaoh said]); ²⁰³ then with the supereminent "I" that is understood in every verse

^{199.} Cf. Patañjali, herein, ch. 2 n 243.

^{200. [}Usually, khud^ca.] Hallaj directly criticized the content of these texts, in *Ṭawāsīn*, trans., ap. Passion, Fr 3:314, 318/Eng 3:297, 300.

^{201.} Passion, Fr 3:57-58/Eng 3:48-49; as Patañjali never recognized.

^{202.} Which he is said to explain as follows: "This heart can indeed contain the Throne thousands of times, because it apprehends the Uncreated" (10n Arabī, Fusūs, 210). Cf. Sahlagī, f. 98.

^{203.} In Qur. 79:24; Tustari took up this saying (cf. Passion, Ft 3:375/Eng 3:357). Bistami used it among mystics in Samarqand (Baqli, Shaih., f. 34).

of the Quran: "Praise be to Me (subhānī)! Praise be to Me! How great is My glory!" Then he said, "That is enough of Me alone! That is enough!"204 Some commentators explain that he spoke in this way because he was in ecstasy, and that when he had come to his senses and learned what he had said, he was visibly terrified at the involuntary impiety. His contemporaries hesitated: Ibn Salim considered the phrase as impious as Pharaoh's, and condemned it; 205 Sarrāj 206 attempted to justify Bistāmī by saying that he had pronounced it as a qira a cala'l-hikaya 207 (as a quotation from someone else, not a claim about himself). 208 According to Khuldī, 209 Junayd justified the saying as follows: "He who is consumed in the manifestations of glory speaks for what is annihilating him; when God distracts him from self-perception and he perceives in himself only God, he describes Him!" This gloss, better suited to some of Hallai's ecstatic utterances, which are more explicit, 210 did not prevent Junayd from concluding that, "Bistami remained at the beginning; he did not reach the full and final state (kamāl wa nihāya)."211 Shiblī, in his own style, drew the same conclusion,212 which Hallaj would deepen, adding details, in his critical commentary on the "subhānī!": 213

Poor Abū Yazīd! He was at the threshold of divine speech (nutq), and it was from God that the words came (to his lips). But he did not know it, blinded as he (still) was by his (persistent) preoccupation with the one named "Abū Yazīd" (i.e., himself, whom he believed he saw raised up, an imaginary obstacle), there between the two (= between God and himself). If he had been a (consummate) wise man, who listens (immediately) when God forms words (deep within him), he would not have contemplated the one named "Abū Yazīd" (= his self); he would not have worried about retracting his words, or feared that they were outrageous.²¹⁴

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204. Text of Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmis, XI, after Sahlagi, f. 96, 148.
205. In appearances (Satrāj, Luma<sup>c</sup>, 390); but his disciple Makki accepts it (Qūi, II, 75).
206. Luma<sup>c</sup>, 391.
207. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:47, 93 n 5/Eng 3:39, 83 n 197.
208. Ibn al-Jawzi (Nāmūs, XI) exchanges the theses between Ibn Sālim and Satrāj.
209. Probably after Dūti (in Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmūs) [Recueil, p. 30].
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^{210.} Passion, Fr 3:53, 226/Eng 3:45, 213-14.
211. Sarrāj, Luna^c, 397. Elsewhere he says Bisṣāmī is in the state of ^cayn al-jam^c (ibid., 372), which is therefore not nihāya.

^{212. &}quot;If Abū Yazid were still alive, he would profess Islam again under the direction of our novices!" (Baqli Shath., ms. QA, f. 80) [Recueil, p. 30].

^{213.} Text, ap. Taw., 177 (of Baqli, Shath., f. 131).

^{214.} From which comes the verse attributed to him, criticizing the subhānī: "I am Yourself, there can be no doubt. The 'Praise be to Thee' (of the Qur³an) is 'Praise be to me'; your tawhīd is what unifies me; your disobedience is my disobedience; to irritate you is to irritate me; your pardon is my pardon" (ms. London, 888, f. 342b); to which Macarti (Chufrān, 152) adds, satirically, "Then it is not I who should be whipped, O my Lord, if they say of me, 'There is the adulterer."

Bistāmī himself seems not to have tried to justify the "subḥāmī." He simply outlined the theory of union with certain divine attributes, but not with the Essence. This kind of union, taken up by Wāsiṭī and then by Gurgānī, This kind of union, taken up by Wāsiṭī and then by Gurgānī, But the abstract and discursive vision of the divine perfections did not satisfy Bisṭāmī. "He who is killed by His love (maḥabba) is ripped from death by His vision (m²ya); but he who is killed by His desire (cishq) is seized from death only by sharing His cup (munādama)": 219 desire, that is, for intimate amical union, which Bisṭāmī could merely glimpse before death. "All have died calā'l-tawahhum," 220 said Junayd, quoted by Wāsiṭī, 221 "even Bisṭāmī; he died having realized his design for union only in the imagination" (= by situating the problem to be solved and supposing it solved, as one who meditates is transported and enclosed by thought in the ideal frame he has composed for himself, without being ravished and taken to that place in reality).

THE PRAYERS FOR INTERCESSION

The same unusual tone, the same outrageous, insolent muttering of an intelligence inebriated by the sublime Goal that escapes it, the same haughty, cynical, disappointed nuance, are prominent in these astonishing prayers. Bistāmī, having acquired full awareness of the doctrine of the hanī-fiyya²²² common to the whole human race, prays to God for all men: he asks that God extend to everyone the indulgence that Muḥammad requested only for the great sinners of his nation, and declares that the Paradise of the houris could not satisfy²²³ the hearts of the elect: "My banner²²² is broader than Muḥammad's!"²²⁵ Before a cemetery of Jews, Bistāmī asks, "What are these, that You should torture them! A handful of dry bones against which sanctions have been pronounced; pardon them!"²²²⁶ Or, according to another version, also before a cemetery of Jews, "They are excusable (because of their invincible ignorance)"; and, before a cemetery of

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215. Sha<sup>c</sup>rāwī, Tab., 1, 76. — However, Sahlagī, f. 49, 52.
216. Sarrāj, Luma<sup>c</sup>. 89, 366.
217. Passion, Fr 2:41/Eng 2:35.
218. Fidya.
219. According to Suhrawardī, ap. Kürküt, Harimī.
220. On this word, see herein, p. 169.
221. Baqlī, Shaṭh., f. 100; taṭār of 53:18-23; Ibn <sup>c</sup>Aṭā Allah, Laṭā <sup>2</sup>if... Mursī, I, 192.
222. Passion, Fr 3:116-17/Eng 3:105. A word much discussed, which occurs in some versions of the Qur <sup>2</sup>an.
223. Sahlagī, f. 66, 122.
224. I.e., my intercession, at the Last Judgment.
225. Baqlī, Shaṭh., ms. QA, f. 132; <sup>c</sup>Aṭṭār, 1, 176.
226. Baqlī, Shaṭh., ms. QA, f. 103 [Recueil, p. 31].
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Muslims, "They are dupes (since the created Paradise will not satisfy them)."²²⁷ "O my God! You have created these creatures without their knowing it; You have charged them with the burden of faith (amāna)²²⁸ when they did not desire it; if You do not help them now, who will help them?"²²⁹

He prayed for Adam, "who sold the divine Presence for a mouthful (luqma)."230 That prayer, according to Bistami, meant more 231 than praying for all mankind: "If God had pardoned me for all men, from the first to the last. I would not have been much impressed; but how astonishing that He should have bestowed upon me the pardon for a mouthful of clay!"232 "O my God! If you in Your prescience have foreseen that You will torture one of Your creatures in Hell, stretch out my being to him, so that I alone may be in his place!"233 "What is that Hell? Surely I shall go among the damned on the Day of Judgment and say to You, 'Take me as their ransom, or else I shall teach them that Your Paradise is but a child's plaything!"234 "If I had to be deprived of meeting Him in Paradise, if only for an instant, I would make life unbearable to the elect of Paradise!"235 "The wise, in the next life, 236 will be of two classes in their visit with God: those who will visit Him whenever and however much they want, and those who will visit Him only once. - Why? - When the wise see God for the first time, He will show them a market in which effigies of men and women are for sale; he (from among the elect) who enters this market will never return to visit God. Ah! God has tricked you, in this life, at

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227. Sarrāj, Lumac, 392-93.
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^{228.} Cf. Passion, Fr 3:20 n 7/Eng 3:13 n 14.

^{229.} Shacrawi, Tab., I, 75.

^{230.} Shacrawi, Lata if, I, 127; Tab., I, 76.

^{231. (}Recueil, p. 30.) A sort of "original sin" thus repaid; the luqua is a trace of the idea of original sin (cf. Ibn Adham and Sarī, apud Ibn Asakir, VI, 73).

^{232.} Sha^crāwī, Laṭā²if, I, 127. Another, weakened version: "Would I ask," said Bisṭāmī to Ibrahim ibn Shayha Harawi, "for the pardon of all men?" "O Abū Yazīd, if God gave you the pardon of all creatures, it would not be much, for they are but a mouthful of clay" (Sha^crāwī, Tab., I, 76; Sahlagī, f. 45).

^{233.} Junayd, according to Dürl, (Sahlagi, Nür) [Recueil, p. 31].

^{234. [}Recueil, p. 32.] Dhahabi, I ciidal. Compare the outrages of William Blake.

^{235.} Baqli, II, 14. There are two variants, following two different theses on the $m^2\gamma a$: (a) "God is intimate with some among the faithful, who, if they were deprived of the sight of Him for one hour in Paradise, would cry out (from thirst) to leave, as the damned cry out to leave hell" (Sahlagi, $N\bar{u}r$); (b) "If God did not take care to conceal His face from the elect in Paradise, they would cry out (from thirst) for help, like the damned in hell" (Kalābādhī, Akhhār, f. 155b; Suhrawardī, 'Awārīf, IV, 279).

^{236.} Ibn al-Jawzi, Nāmūs, XI [Recueil, p. 32]. A variant, according to Sahlagi (Nūr): "The elect in Paradise visit (God); when they come back from the visit, effigies are offered to them; he from among the elect who chooses one never comes again for the visit." This seems to be a veiled criticism of Muḥāsibl's Kitāb al-tawahhum (v. herein, p. 169). Cf. Passion, Fr 3:179/Eng 3:166-67.

the market, and, in the next, at the market; you are and ever shall be the market's slave!"

BISŢĀMĪ AND ḤALLĀJ

It became common among later mystics to compare these two.²³⁷ The problems of the qāb qawsayn and the subḥānī have already allowed us to see how they differed. A comparative review of their language will perfectly clarify the distinction between the authors of the subhānī and the anā'l-Haqq.

Bistāmī teaches the superiority of fard to sunna, dhikr to fikr, and cilm to ma^cnfa; 238 Hallaj takes the opposite position. 239 Bistami, outlining Wasiti's theory (takhallug bi asmā Allāh), makes mysticism's goal the huzūz alawliya, 240 the "shares allotted" as each saint achieves union with one divine name ("al-zāhir," "al-bāṭin," etc.). Hallāj goes further and envisages ittisāf, the transforming conformation of substance to substance.²⁴¹ On the problem of the divine conversations, Bistami raises himself, through a series of intellectual efforts (partial, momentary, mental identifications), to the "anā huwa" (= "I am the 'he'" of each phrase = "I have been invested with the right to preach logical identity"). 242 He never considers Hallaj's ana'l-Haga, 243 which reaches the permanent source of all of these transitory identities; Bistami says only "anta'l-Haqq, wa bi'l-Haqq nara...," 244 which clarifies Ibn Adham's well-known theme. 245 Bistami's saying about the wise man who is "like the damned man in the fire, neither living nor dead," attests to his unconsummated desire for union, as in Hallaj's couplet Uriduka; 246 but Bistami's proposition la hal li'l-carif is corrected by Hallaj (lā wagt ...).247 Bistāmī's final mystical state, the fanā bi'l-tawhīd, is a conceptual negative purgation, a suspension of the soul, which hovers immobile in the interval between the subject and object (both of these being equally annihilated). One is reminded of Patanjali. 248 For Hallaj, on the

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237. Starting with Kilani.
238. Sha<sup>c</sup>rāwi, Tab., 1, 76.
239. Passion, Fr 3:238-39, 129/Eng 3:225-26, 117.
240. Sha<sup>c</sup>rāwi, Tab., 1, 76. But also, see Sahlagi, f. 49, 129.
241. Passion, Fr 3:18, 142/Eng 3:11, 130.
242. Ibid., Fr 3:193/Eng 3:181.
243. Ibid., Fi alonex, s.v.
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244. Sahlagi, Nür, f. 137: "You are the Truth; through the Truth we see; through it we observe (taliaqquq), the truth; You are the truth and what verifies the truth (muhaqqiq)..." "... I am the Truth," answers God, "and since, through Me, you are, now I am you and you are I..."
245. Herein, ch. 5 n 72.

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246. Shacrawi, Tab., 1, 76. Passion, Fr 3:128/Eng 3:116.
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^{247.} Passion, Fr 3:79/Eng 3:69.

^{248.} Analogy, not borrowing; Bistami achieves it by the alternating usage of two parts of the shahāda, negation and affirmation. Patañjali achieves the same thing by a completely different method (herein, p. 64).

other hand, the desired Object has transmuted the subject: the magic circle of the prohibitive statement of faith is broken.²⁴⁹

Several of the definitions and parables ²⁵⁰ that Hallāj developed had been outlined by Bisṭāmī. We must not judge his outrages of style, which were the result of an unprecedented intellectual inebriation, with those of the later monists, whose cold cultivation of the same phraseology was bitterly ironic. Bisṭāmī became drunk to the point of delirium with tajnd, ²⁵¹ with the previously unexplored via remotionis; but he remained a rigorous, fervent, and perhaps humble ascetic. ²⁵²

To complete his portrait, here is an anecdote, obviously excessive,²⁵¹ but useful nevertheless, as much for amateurs who see in mysticism a pleasurable art as for the learned who think they can penetrate its language by consulting a library:

One day, an old, respectable, and zealous shaykh, who had been made to wonder by Bistāmi's pronouncements, gathered his courage and asked what he could do to obtain the same favors. Bistāmī, imperturbable, advised the stifled old apprentice mystic to follow this foolproof procedure: "Shave your head and beard, remove your clothes, wrap your abā around you, and hang a sack of nuts from your neck; then bring together some poor children and offer them a nut for each slap they give you; walk about with this group through all the markets, in full view of your friends and acquaintances."

B. The Works of Tirmidh 1254

Abū ^cAbdallah Muḥammad ibn ^cAlī ibn Ḥusayn Tirmidhī (d. 285/898),²⁵⁵ called al-Ḥakīm (the Philosopher), was above all a prolific and

249. Passion, Fr 3:110/Eng 3:99. Bistamt has a glimpse of this liberation, when he refuses to pronounce the shahāda (Baqli, I, 73; cf. Passion, Fr 3:246/Eng 3:232).

250. For example, 'The reality of Susism is a scintillating light (niir sha^csha^cānī), which our eyes come upon and discover, and by which our eyes are contemplated' (Sahlagi, Niir; cf. Passion, Fr 1:520, 3:147/Eng 1:472, 3:134; this is the lambat al-basar of God — Passion, Fr 3:113/Eng 3:102); the spiritual tawāf, around the Throne (cf. Passion, Fr 1:588-B9, 596-97/Eng 1:541-43, 550).

251. Cf. Hallaj, infra, ch. 5 n 410.

252. "I believe in Muhammad the Messenger neither because he split the moon and broke stones nor because he made trees come together and plants and bricks speak, but because, with perfect wisdom, he forbade his Companions and his Community to drink wine, and made wine an illicit drink" (ap. Affākī, trans. Huart, 121).

253. Makki, Qit, 11, 75. Sahlagi, f. 59. This anecdote was for me, at Fez in May 1923, a signifi-

cant test of shirk khafi, with the learned sherif Abdelhayy el-Kittani (see bib., Kittani).

254. On his life, see (Lisān al-mīzān, V, 308) the attacks by Ibn al-Adim (Kitāb al-mallia fi'l-radd falā Abī Tallia) and his autobiography, discovered by H. Ritter (Kitāb al-sha'n; cf. note in Etudes cannélitaines, 1951), in which his wife's piety serves as a spiritual electroscope for him.

255. Brockelmann made him into two different men with different dates for their deaths (G.A.L., I, 164, 199).

original writer, on hadīth as well as mysticism. He is the first Muslim mystic in whom there are traces of the infiltration of Hellenistic philosophy; 256 in this he is a precursor of al-Fārābī. But in Tirmidhī, philosophy is only an accessory; he seeks to take the exposition of traditional dogma attempted by Ibn Karrām and recast it in the mold of a rational synthesis. 257 Less fervent and wise than Muhāsibī, Tirmidhī was a Ḥanafite idealogue and a learned man, almost an esoterist, as diffuse in style as he was loquacious. He is a precious source because of his wealth of supporting documents.

LIST OF HIS WORKS

- 1. Khātam al-wilāya (also known as sīrat al-awliyā, 258 cilm al-awliyā), 259 the "Seal of Sanctity." Cf. below, and Passion, Fr 3:173, 221/Eng 3:161, 209. Ibn Arabī made a long meditation on this, Tirmidhī's fundamental work, which he used often; the work seems, except for a list of chapters, to have been lost entirely.*
- 2. Clial al-cubūdiyya (alias clial al-sharīca). The Rational Grounds for Canonical Rites." Cf. below; and Cairo ms. VII, 177: f. 148-212b.
- 3. Al-akyās²⁶¹ wa'l-mughtarīn, "The Wise and the Deluded," a book of examples of the different types of psychological illusions peculiar to believers, classified according to the canonical act and the trade of the believer. Damascus manuscript Zah, tas 104, sec. I.
- 4. Riyāḍat al-nafs (vulgo Riyāḍa), "Mortification of the Flesh." Important manual of asceticism. Damascus ms. Zah. taṣ 104, sec. V.
- 4 bis. Al-riyāḍa fī ta^calluq al-amr bi'l-khalq, ms. ^cĀshir 1479, sec. VIII, and Paris 5018, sec. VI (= Al-ḥaqīqa al-adamiyya), edited by ^cAbdalmuḥsin Ḥusaynī, Alexandria, 1946 (60 pp.).

These are the fundamental ascetic/mystical works. The others works are:

- 5. Jawāb kitāb [Uthmān ibn Sacīd] min Rayy, Damascus ms. 104, sec. 11.
- 6. Bayān al-kasb, Damascus ms. 104, sec. III.
- 7. Masā³il, Damascus ms. 104, sec. IV.
- 8. Adāb al-murīdīn, lost (cited in Hujwīrī, Kashf, 338).
 - * But now found. See below, "Table of the chapters of the Khātam al-wilayā."
 - 256. See Attar, II, 91-99.
- 257. Cf. the attempted reform by the Thawrite malāmatī Ḥamdūn Qaṣṣār (d. 271), who tried to reintroduce the notion of kash.
 - 258. His own reference, ap. Masa'il, f. 280 of my copy.
- 259. His own reference, ap. cliat al-cubiidiyya, f. 166b; on the esoteric meaning of thanā (consult quest, 100 and 139).
 - 260. Passion, Fr 1:432; 3:11/Eng 1:384; 3:4.
 - 261. On this unusual meaning of the term, cf. Jahiz, Bayan, III, 81.

On dogmatic theology:

- 9. Kitāb al-tawhīd, lost (cited in Hujwīrī, Kashf, 141).
- 10. Adhāb al-qabr; lost (cited in Hujwīrī, Kashf, 141).
- 11. Dun maknūn fī as ilat mā kān wa mā yakūn, Leipzig ms. 212.

The hadith he compiled are gathered in several books:

- 12. Nawādir al-uṣūl, 262 Köpr. ms. 464-65, Yeni Jāmi^c 302, Madrid 468 (v. I).
- 13. Kitāb al-furūq, ms. Aya Sūfiya 1975 [and two other mss., see Recueil, p.37].
- 14. Kitāb al-nahj, lost (cited in Hujwīrī, Kashf, 141).
- 15. Tafsīr (unfinished Qur³ānic commentary), lost (cited in Hujwīrī, Kashf, p. 141).

Finally, he is the author of the first collection of biographies of the Muslim saints:

16. Ta²rīkh al-mashā²ikh (var. Ṭabaqāt al-ṣūfiyya);261 lost (cited Hujwīrī, Kashf, 46).

Add to this list the Adab al-cālim wa'l-mutacallim, ed. M. Z. Kawtharī, Cairo, 1358, and some other works preserved in manuscript, which are listed as nos. 17-30, in an addendum to the preceding list, in Recueil, p. 37.

Analysis of the 'Ilal al-'ubūdiyya. It is a series of critical notes on the canonical rituals. Tirmidhi attempts to discern the rational motive for instituting each ritual, as much to respond to the Qarmathians' philosophical objections as to present a synthesis satisfactory to the mind. After the dīhāja, there are twelve notes on the purifications preceding canonical prayer, siwāk, khalā, wudū^c (6-7, 9-12), ghusl al-janāba; then forty-four historicoliturgical notes on the salāt itself,264 an effort to find a plausible answer to the following questions: Why the takbir? To teach humility. And the tahiyāt? According to Hasan, it is the islamization of a pagan rite. Why is the number of rak cas not the same 265 in the last five prayers? What is the etymology of the word salāt? (according to clkrima, it is "to tie" [man] to God); and of the Persian word namāj [= namāz]? (it comes from Namīj, the "Syriac" name of the first angel who obeyed and prostrated himself before Adam). In conclusion there are eight articles on ascetic psychology: the various dispositions (manāzil) of hearts during prayer, temptation, the three species of hearts, the heart as the house of God, the five defects to avoid

^{262.} Extracts, ap. Ibn al-Dabbāgh, Ibrīz; and Nabhānī (Muḥanmad: on his preexistence). The Nawādir al-uṣūl prove the authenticity of his Khātam al-awliyā, ed. Ibn Arabi (Futūḥāt, II, 44-154; cf. p. 454).

^{263.} A rather credulous work, as to legends, since it classifies Abu Hanifa among the mystics.

^{264.} Comp. Falim al-salāt, a short work by Muhāsibl.

^{265.} A typical Qarmathian objection (Farq, 293); cf. A. M. Kindi, Risāla, 10.

while praying, how the self-denial of the fast raises the four veils of the heart, the heart's three foods and four graces, and the internal directives that allow proper performance of prayers: fard, sunna, or tatawwu.

Table of the chapters of the Khātam al-wilāya. This curious book explains, in 160 articles, the principal ecstatic statements (shathiyāt), be they derived from the Qur³ān or not, that were put into circulation during the first two centuries of the Hijra. ²⁶⁶ Thanks to Ibn Arabī, we possess the table of contents:*

§§1. The number of stations (manāzil) of the saints.

—2. Where are the stations of the ahl al-qurba.—3. Their meetings, behind this veil.—4. Their limitations.—5. Where is the stage (maqām) of the Ahl al-majālis wa'l-hadīth.—6. How numerous are they.—7. What made their Master bestow that maqām upon them.—8. What are their conversation (hadīth) and intimate encounter with God.—9. How they begin their munājāh.—10. How they end them.—11. What are His response to them and their response to Him.—12. How to describe their conduct.—13. Who has the right to the "Seal of the Saints," as Muḥammad had the right to the Seal of Prophecy.—14. What is the quality of having this right.—15. What is the cause of this seal and what is its meaning.—16. How many meetings are there for the Angel of the Realm (malak al-mulk).—17. Where is the stage of the apostles in relation to that of the prophets.—18. Where is the stage of the prophets in relation to that of the saints.—19. What constitutes the special dowry of happiness (hazz) received by each apostle from his Master [20-23].

-24. What is the origin of the names. -25. [What is the origin] of the revelation (wahy). -26. Of the spirit ($r\bar{u}h$). -27. Of $sak\bar{n}a$. -28. What is justice. -29. What is the superiority of certain prophets (and saints) to others. -30. God made the creation in darkness (zulma). -32. How to describe the $maq\bar{a}d\bar{u}r$. -33. What is the cause of this science of qadar that was revealed to the prophets. -34. Why it was revealed. -35. When it (the secret of qadar) was revealed. -39. What is this Supreme Intellect (al- ^{C}Aql al-Akbar) from which were parceled out the intellects of all His creatures. -40. How to describe Adam. -51. Where are the treasures of grace [minan]. -52. Where are the treasures of those among the saints who converse with God (muhaddithin), -55. What is their hadīth.

^{*} In fact, this list is not the table of contents but a simple list of questions constituting the fourth chapter of the Khatin al-analiya?, which was discovered in 1954 (Bib., s.n. Timidhi). Osmān Yahia's ed. (pp. 142-236) reproduces Ibn 'Arabi's responses from the Fut (see also Cairo ed. [reprint Beirut 1968] 2:39-139 [cf. ch. 5 n 262, v.s.]) and the Janah mustagim. Massignon also fills in the gaps in this list; see Recueil, p. 253.

^{266.} Without mention of their authors.

- 56. What is revelation (wahy). - 57. The difference between the muhaddithin and the prophets. - 59. Where are most of the saints. - 64. What is the "word" [kalām] addressed by God to the muwahhidin. - 65. What is His word to the apostles. - 66-71. What are the dowries of the prophets in the vision they have of God; what are the dowries of the muhaddithin; of the other saints; and of ordinary men. For among their dowries (huzūz) on the Day of the Visit (yawm al-ziyāra) there is a distinction, and no good news can describe it. And just as in Paradise there are degrees, so for them, on the Day of the Visit, there are degrees. - 75. How much Muhammad's dowry differs from those of the other prophets. - 82. How many parts of prophecy there are. - 84. How many parts of the siddigiyya. - 87. What the Truth demands of the muwahhidin. - 88. What is the Truth (al-Haqq). - 89. Who made it appear. -90. What is its action on creation. -91. Who is its delegate. -92. What is the fruit of it. - 93. Who is a "verifier" (muhiqq). - 94. What is the place of him who is one. - 95. What is the saking of the saints. - 96. What is the dowry of the believers. - 97. What is their dowry, "All things perish, except His face." - 98. Why does one say "face," in particular. - 100. What is "Amen." - 101. What is the sujud. - 102. How did it start. - 103-107. What is His statement, "The glory is My turban, the grandeur is My mantle." What are the turban, the mantle, pride. - 108. What is the "crown" of the Realm. - 109. What is "dignity" (waqar). - 110. How to describe the "assemblies (majālis) of veneration." - 111. And the "Realm of the graces." - 112. And the "Realm of Light." - 113. And the "Realm of divine Sanctity." - 114. What is divine Sanctity. - 115. What are the scintillations of the face (subuhāt al-wajh). - 116. What is the drink of love. - 117. What is the chalice of love. - 118. Where is it. - 119. What is "Drinking His love for you so deeply that He inebriates you with love for Him." - 120. What is the embrace (qabda). - 123. How many looks God casts upon his saints every day; and what He looks at in them. - 124. What He looks at in the prophets, how many He receives in His intimacy every day. - 125. What is "to be with" (maciyya) for God, for he "is with" His creation. - 126. What are his asfīyā. Prophets and intimates (khāssa). - 127. How they differ. - 128. What is the dhikr of God; surely the dhikr of God is supreme. - 129. "Udhkuruni adhkurukum." - 130. What the Name means. - 131. What is the Name, upon which the (created) names are conditional. - 132. What is the Name that is hidden from all creation, but not from His intimates. - 133-134. How Solomon's friend received it and revealed it to Solomon, the apostle of apostles; and why. - 135. Did he learn the letters of this Name or its meaning. - 136. Where is the door that gives access to this Name; where is it hidden from all creation. - 137. What is its vestment (kiswa). - 138. What are the consonants in the alphabet. - 139. The isolated consonants (of the Quran) are the key to every one of the (divine) names;

where are the names, where are their consonants. - 140. How alif became the first letter. - 141. And lām-alif the last. - 142. The count that stopped the number of letters at 28. - 143. What is the meaning of "God made Adam in His own image."—144. And of "Add twelve prophets from my nation." - 145. What Moses' cry, "Lord, make me belong to the nation of Muhammad!" signifies. - 146. And "God has worshipers other than the prophets, and whose bliss the prophets envy, for they are close to God alone." - 147. And the basmala. - 148. And "Peace be with you, O Prophet!" - 149. And "Peace be upon us and upon the pious worshipers of God." — 150. And "The people of my family are the safeguard (aman) of my nation." - 151. What is the "family of Muhammad" (āl Muhammad). - 152. Where are the treasures of the Proof, in the treasures of the Work, in the treasures of the knowledge of divine autonomy (tadbir). - 153. Where are the treasures of the knowledge of God in the knowledge of creation (bad2). - 154. What is the "mother of the Book" (Umm al-kitāb) that He reserved for our Prophet among all the prophets, and for our nation. - 155. What is the pardon (maghfira) bestowed upon our Prophet, and previously announced to all others.

Remarks: art. 13-15: cf. Passion, Fr 3:221/Eng 3:209. Ibn Arabi (Angā mughrib, Cairo ms., f. 4a) gives an extract of this section: "The seal of the saints is superior (afdal) to Abū Bakr; he is Jesus; he is at once a prophet ab intra, and a saint ad extra! For his heart works in two ways: he receives ab intra the divine inspiration (ilhām), and he impresses upon his limbs (ad extra) the commandment (amr) of God." - 18. Therefore it is said, "starting point of the saints, end point of the prophets" (Simnānī, in Jāmī, 509; Mursī interprets the phrase falsely, according to Shacrawi, Tabagat, II). - 19. Passion, Fr 3:210/3:198, and herein, text at ch. 5 n 81. - 20-23. Headings skipped in my copy. - 32. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:135/Eng 3:123. - 39. Cf. Tustari, in Passion, Fr 3:301/Eng 3:283. - 40. Cf. Passion Fr 3:115-16/Eng 3:104. - 55. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:156/Eng 3:143. - 66-71. A theme treated by Ibn Adham, Muhāsibī, and Bistāmī (Passion, Fr 3:178-79/Eng 3:166-67; herein, index, s.v.). According to the Hilya, Tirmidhi explains [Recueil, p. 36], "God has chosen the muwahhidin so that they may glorify Him on the day of the Jam^c Akbar, in His court, before His Angels. In the nature of Adam and his descendants was manifest a seed of Love, while in the nature of the Angels was manifest the divine Omnipotence. Because of His love for the Adamites, God will rejoice in their conversation and say, in this lame, 'O troop of My angels, your splendors issue from yourselves, for you were created from light; but the splendors of men come from their covetous souls, while demons encircle them in the vilest dwelling-place. I made them from earth. That is why they now deserve My dwelling-place, and nearness to Me."

Which is an attenuation. — 75. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:210/Eng 3:198. — 88. Cf. Passion, Fr 3:88/Eng 3:77-78. — 93. On muḥiqq, see Ḥallāj (Akhb. 44 [50]) and Ibn Atā (Baqlī, II, 587). — 119. The saying is Miṣrī's (Sarrāj, Maṣāri', 180). — 123. Cf. Ḥallāj, Riw., 28.—129. Cf. Ibn Jyāḍ (herein, ch. 3, sec. 5.B.). — 131. The "Name" is the ism a zam (Passion, Fr. 3:110/Eng 3:99; and herein, ch. 2, sec. 2. B. — 138. ff. Cf. Passion, Fr. 3:109/Eng 3:98.—145. Cf. Sahlagī, Nūr, f. 37.—146. It is the ḥadīth al-ghibṭa (Passion, Fr 3:218/Eng 3:206). — 147. Cf. Ḥallāj (Passion, Fr 3:52/Eng 3:44). — 151. Cf. anti-Shiite exegesis of the qurbā (Qur an) according to Ḥasan, herein, ch. 4, text at n 272.

HIS DOCTRINE

Tirmidhī is a theoretician. He proceeds methodically through the inventory of inner mystical experiences, "simply savoring" them in his innermost self, and then classifying them. With his balanced, logical mind, he succeeds in freeing the design of his principal works from servitude to isnād. But he attaches too much importance to the letter of definitions. He tends to confuse concepts with their verbal presentation; he is the first Sunni mystic to be inclined towards a kabbala of the letters of scripture. Compared to Muḥāsibī, Tirmidhī is less humble and wise, more professorial, better arranged. He is a Hanafite deeply influenced by Ibn Karrām, 268 whose doctrine he tries to rework, taking objections into account; Tirmidhī makes great efforts to identify ma rifa with mān, 269 and to reduce the notion of rāḥ to that of all. 270 His doctrine that reason, all, has been cut into pieces and divided among the believers alone, 71 prepares the way for Tustarī's philosophico-gnostic compromise. Tirmidhī, reacting against Murji ism, reintroduces the notion of kasb. 273

In mystical psychology, he gives an excellent presentation of the "science of hearts"; ²⁷⁴ he distinguishes sadr from qalb, ²⁷⁵ explicitly observing that qalb (heart) designates both the organ regulating thought and the piece

^{267.} Passion, Fr 3:106/Eng 3:95-96. Here I cite the pagination of my copy of ms. Damascus 104. Cf. Ellal, f. 166b.

^{268.} Adhāb al-qabr—mu³nin liaqqan (f. 398); Tirmidhī and Ibn Khuzayma were fellow disciples, with Rawwāsī, (f. 402). Discussion of a hadīth of al-Kalbī (f. 11; cf. herein, text at note 136). The role of ^caql. He is ^cuman (f. 317), like Abū Hāshim. He classifies Abū Ḥanīfa among the mystics.

^{269.} Passion, Fr 3:65 n 3/Eng 3:55 n 12.

^{270.} Ibid., Fr 3:24, 158/Eng 3:15, 145-46.

^{271.} Ms. Damascus 104, f. 353.

^{272.} Passion, Fr 3:302/Eng 3:283.

^{271.} Riyāda. Cf. Hilya.

^{274.} Passion, Fr 3:19-20, 25-26/Eng 3:12-13, 18-19.

^{275.} Cf. Qur. 5:10-11; Ghazāli, Munqidh, 7. Ms. Damascus 104, f. 216, 291; The Angels cannot guess the secrets of men's hearts (cf. Şabiḥi, in Baqli, 11, 22). Passion, Fr 3:26-27/Eng 3:19.

of visceral flesh.²⁷⁶ He also defines degrees of sanctity,²⁷⁷ especially from the point of view of intellectual illumination,²⁷⁸ without the intervention either of ecstasy (tawājud) to transfigure²⁷⁹ the body, or of love to transform the will. Tirmidhi's angelology is highly developed and approaches spiritualism; he claims to be in constant contact with spirits both good (Khiḍr) and bad (Khannās).²⁸⁰ According to him, the angels drink canonical prayer, with their lips to the lips of the one who is praying.²⁸¹

Through his direct disciple Abū Bakr Muḥammad Warrāq, Tirmidhī influenced the Malāmatiyya mystical school. But it was his books that had the greater effect, first on Ibn cArabî, whose precursor he was; then on Bahā al-Dīn Naqshband, the founder of the Naqshbandiyya order. 282

4. SAHL TUSTARĪ AND THE SĀLIMIYYA SCHOOL

I have examined Tustari's life elsewhere. Here I shall summarize his doctrine ²⁸³ and that of his disciples, the Salimiyya, and give the text of the sixteen Salimiyyan propositions condemned by the Hanbalites.

Through his teacher Ibn Sawwär, Tustari is the disciple of Thawri, of the philologist Abū 'Amr ibn al-'Alā, of strict Sunni traditionists; and of two mystics, Mālik ibn Dīnār and Ma'rūf ibn 'Alī. 284 He is hostile to the mutakallimūn, and he uses a special type of dialectical argumentation (radd al-far' ilā'l-aṣl). 285 He has a tendency to confuse what is evident to reason ('aql) with the light of faith; "renunciation (tawakkul) is deduced from certainty (yaqīn)"; ma'rīfa is the fikra of the mīthāq; the role of reason is to recognize what is allowed under the sacred law. "The proof of tawhīd is the very affirmation we make (al-jazm dalīl)." 286 I have pointed out his psychological theories of the three laṭā of and the three tawafī; 287 his intense

^{276.} Ms. Damascus 104, f. 300: "baḍ^cat min lalım fi jawfika" = the mudgha jawfāniyya of Ḥallāj (Bustān, sec. 15).

^{277.} Letter to Uthman of Rayy.

^{278.} The lights of (anwar) that are the antidote for poisoned hearts (ms. Damascus 104, f. 390).

^{279.} His theory of the destructive tajalli (ms. Damascus 104, f. 402) is a forerunner of the Sālimiyyan theory (herein, ch. 4, sec. 4, thesis iv, and see longer text, Rerueil, p. 40). This preterition of ecstasy is one of the distinctive traits of the Malāmatiyya.

^{280.} On Khannas, cf. Chauvin, Bibliographie, VIII (Syntipas), sec. 131, 176. Attar, II, 96-97.

^{281.} cllal, f. 148b.

^{282.} Jämi, 132.

^{283.} From the following sources: (a) his Tafsūr, printed Cairo, 1326, 204 pp. (ed. Nacsāni); (b) two apologetic works of Abū'l-Qāsim Ṣaqallī (about 390/999): Sharlı wa bayān limā ashkala min kalām Sahi and Mucānada wa radd, both preserved ap. ms. Köpr. 727. For Ṣaqallī's sifat al-awliyā, see Ibn Atā Allah, Hikam, 78, 163.

^{284.} Passion, Fr 1:110 ff./Eng 1:69 ff.

^{285.} Cf. Passion, Fr 3:96/Eng 3:85.

^{286. [}Recueil, p. 42 (and all fragments of the Mucarada on pp. 41-42).] Sagalli, Mucarada; cf. Passion, Fr 1:366/37/Eng 1:290.

^{287.} Passion, Fr 3:26-27/Eng 3:19.

spiritualism leads him to say that man positively "lives" on faith. Like Ibn Karrām, he affirms, against the common doctrine, the soul's personal survival after death, 288 though the Hellenistic theory of impersonal survival (caql) might have tempted him. 289 His theory of the four elements is the same as Tirmidhi's, 290 and he applies it to the soul.

In theodicy, Tustarī affirms the fullness of divine reality, against the Mu^ctazilī restrictions [Recueil, p.42]:

Wahdāniyya, ²⁹¹ fundamentally, means that God is, before everything can be. He is alone (fard) and knowing, He has willed, determined, balanced...rewarded, and punished; acts are attributed to men, but He possesses their origin and end (tamām); the guilty do not defeat Him by sinning, and the just do not obey without recourse to Him. All things are, through His knowledge and power; they are not this knowledge and power, to be sure, but they exist by means of them both.

Tustarī tends to allow only for a virtual distinction between the various divine attributes, and to catch a glimpse ²⁹² of them in every created thing, viewed at a certain angle. In cosmogony, he tries to stay at an equal distance from Qadarism and Murji³ism; he admirably explains that God's grace intervenes not only at the moment of the act but also before and after (istitā^ca qabl, ma^c, ba^cd al-fi^cl). ²⁹³ He links the two questions of iktisāb and tafāīl al-faqr. ²⁹⁴ In eschatology, he affirms the necessity under sacred law of continuous contrition, tawba, but he understands this term to signify the mind's "return" to awareness of the divine presence, thanks to the act of faith, of which he makes a fine analysis. ²⁹⁵ For him faith, ³īmān, includes the entire religious position of the believer. Faith's essence is divine; it is an uncreated, evident Certainty, yaqīn, which is God Himself. ²⁹⁶ Tustarī also accepts that at the Judgment all creatures will receive the vision of

^{288.} Ibid., Fr 3:23-24/Eng 3:16.

^{289.} Cf. Tirmidhi.

^{290.} Elal, f. 2092; it is supposed to be Hellenistic. Also, according to Ibn Arabī, Sahl calls God "al-sabab al-auwal" (Rashḥ al-zulāl, ms. P. 4802, 4) and calls the primary matter "ḥaqīqa" (habā) (Fut., I, 132). Firyābī attrībutes to Sahl (Khulāṣa, ms. Arles 428, p. 391) a Ghāyat ahl al-nihāya (Qurashī, Tab. ḥanaf., I, 153).

^{291.} Şagalli, Mucarada.

^{292.} Whence the taf cil of Ibn Salim (Passion, Fr 3:47/Eng 3:39).

^{291.} Şaqallı, Mucarada; Passion, Fr 3:122/Eng 3:109-10.

^{294.} Cf. Passion, Fr 3:239/Eng 3:225. Ibn Karram, by an inverse process, links the inkar alkash to the tafati al-ghina (herein, ch. 5 n 87-8 and related text).

^{295.} Passion, Fr 3: 32/Eng 3:24-25 [see also Passion Fr 3: 120/Eng 3: 108].

^{296,} Ibid., Fr 3:46/Eng 3:38.

God, the m^2ya ; even Satan, who will be forgiven. ²⁹⁷ Tustari's theory of tajallī ²⁹⁸ and the anwār (illuminations) is the work of an intellectualist. In
politics, he admits that the prophetic mission is an emanation of the primordial "column of light," particles of which are found in the hearts of the
believers. (He has made a compromise between the Hellenistic ^caql akbar
and Imāmī gnosticism.) ²⁹⁹ Tustarī hesitates, but he still seems to differentiate saints from prophets. ³⁰⁰ He is very firm for the obedience owed to the
government of the caliphs ³⁰¹ and for the unity of the Community. ³⁰² His
theory of the four senses of the Qur ²ān is important. ³⁰³

Various suggestions from Tustarī were developed by Ḥallāj; 104 notably on the basmala and the ghayba bi'l-madhkūr. 305 The Sālimiyya, however, were led towards monism by their own distortions of other suggestions he had made: 306 sirr al-rubūbiyya, sirr al-"ana".

Ibn Sālim of Baṣra, the founder of this important mystical school and a Malikite in jurisprudence, wanted simply to be the editor of the "thousand questions" asked of Tustari, his master. ³⁰⁷ But Ibn Sālim seems to have emphasized, and even to have exaggerated, some of the bolder features of Tustari's doctrine. For two centuries, the school was engaged in copious theological and literary activity, and it can claim to have produced works as valuable as Abū Ṭālib Makki's (d. 390) Qūt al-qulūb and Ibn Barrajān's (d. 536) Tafsīr. It finally disappeared, under the pressure of the condemnations incurred.

Here is a list, adapted from an account in the Mu^ctamad of Abū Ya^clä ibn al-Farrā (d. 458),³⁰⁸ of the sixteen Sālimiyyan propositions condemned by the Hanbalites (Kīlānī reproduces ten of them in his Ghunya)³⁰⁹ [Recueil, pp. 39–40]:

297. Ibid., Fr 3:325/Eng 3:307-8.

307. Passion, Fr 3:112/Eng 3:71.

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298. Şaqalli, Sharlı, III.
299. Passion, Fr 3:301, 376/Eng 3:283, 358.
300. Ibid., Fr 3:375/Eng 3:163.
301. Ibid., 3:302-3/Eng 3:190-91.
302. Hubb al-salaba fard; and not tabarii, an al-fussāq (Şaqalli, Sharlı); Passion, Fr 1:110-11/Eng 1:69-70.
303. Passion, Fr 3:186-87/Eng 3:174-75.
304. Ibid., 3:16/Eng 3:9.
305. Ibid., Fr 3:46 n 7/Eng 3:39 n 95.
306. Attenuation by Ibn Sālim of his doctrine of balā (= ghurba ilā al-Maļbūb, in Qūt, II, 67; cf. Passion, Fr 3:131/Eng 3:119); exaggeration about the mu²min haqqam (Passion, Fr 3:100 n 5/Eng 3:89 n 241). Tustarī, on the contrary, used to say, "I pray to God that He should give us back our true faith, an yuhaqqiqa ²imānanā," and to profess the tabarī camman yaddacī al-tawakkul
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309. Ghunya, I, 83-84: in the following order: iii-iv, v, iii bis, vi, vii, xiii bis, x, xii, xiii, xiv, xvi.

wa'l-ridi wa'l-shawq (Şaqallı, Sharlı; cf. Ghulam Khalil and Ibn Başta CUkbari).

308. Muctamad ft usul al-din, ms. Damascus Zah., tauhid, 45.

- i. God does not cease, in His essence, to contemplate³¹⁰ the universe, whether the universe exists or not.³¹¹
- ii. God grasps by one attribute alone 312 what He grasps by all of His attributes.
- iii. God will be seen, on the Day of Judgment, in the form of a Muham-madiyyan man. (Even the infidels will see him in the next life, and He will summon them to be judged.)³¹³
- iv. God will irradiate³¹⁴ on that day on all His creatures: *jinn* and human beings, angels and animals; and each one, recognizing Him, will acquiesce to His signification.
- v. The divine omnipotence³¹⁵ has a secret (sin)—if it were discovered, prophecy would become worthless; prophecy has a secret—if it were discovered, knowledge of the Qur³ an would become worthless; and knowledge has a secret—if it were discovered, the judgments of the doctors of the law would become worthless.³¹⁶
- vi. Satan prostrated himself (before Adam) at the second divine command.
- vii. Satan never entered Paradise.317
- viii. God never ceases creating.318
- ix. A work (fict) is a created thing, but the act that creates it is uncreated.319
- x. This was the punishment for the vainglory Moses had conceived after his conversation with God (mukālama): upon asking to see Him (nu³ya), he suddenly perceived a hundred identical Sinais, and a Moses on each one.³²⁰
- xi. Divine decision (irāda) is a created thing.321
- xii. Divine decision concerning the errors of creatures foresees those faults in them (bihim) (as involuntary defects), but not as coming from them (lā minhum)³²² (= voluntary).
 - 310. "Lam yazal ra"iyan . . . fi dhätihi."
- 311. There is a surviving fragment of the Radd salā Ibn Sālīm of Ibn Khastīf, in which he condemns proposition (i) as professing the eternity of the world (qidam al-dahr); to which Harawi answers that it is perhaps nothing but the divine prescience (silm: Massim Ali Shāh, Tarā 1q, 11, 222).
- 312. "Yudrik bişifa wāḥida."
 313. Added by Kllānī (in an independent section). [In the Recueil, the section in brackets is added to (iv), not (iii).]
 - 114. Yatajalla, Kilani abridges.
 - 315. Rubūbiyya. Cf. Passion, Fr 1:111 n 5/Eng 1:70 n 21.
 - 316. This secret is that of the preeternal investiture of each person's "I."
 - 317. Cf. Shibli, Akam, 156.
- 318. Passion, Fr 3:47/Eng 3:39. This proposition is summarized as "khalq fi kull nafas" by Ibn 'Arabi (Fut., I, 211; IV, 23).
- 319. Ibn al-Farra notes that, nevertheless, "taf "il, wāḥiduhu fi "l..." in grammar ("taf "il, a collective noun, has the singular, fi "l").
 - 320. Taw., P. 164.
 - 321. Passion, Fr 3:129/Eng 3:117.
- 322. Passion, Ft 3:130-31/Eng 3:118-19. Killini exaggerates the characteristic: "From His creatures, God wants the acts of obedience, but not the faults, which He foresees in them, but not as coming from them."

- xiii. The Prophet knew the whole Qur³ an by heart before Gabriel came to recite it to him.³²³
- xiv. God speaks, and it is He that we hear speak through the tongue of each reader of the Qur³ān.³²⁴
- xv. God has one will (mashī²a), as He has but one (uncreated) knowledge (^cilm).³²⁵ And, in conjunction with every decided thing (murād), He has a (created) decision (irāda).³²⁶
- xvi. God is present in every place (fi kull makān);³²⁷ there is no difference, from this point of view, between the Throne and other places.

The Sālimiyya suffered ridiculous invective of a very vulgar tone against their "anthropomorphism," but they inspired respect, as much for their high piety as for their intellectual activity, in many adversaries. Ibn al-Farrā, in a paragraph in which he condemns them, expresses his admiration for Abū Ṭālib Makkī; and we know of the latter's influence on the second stage of Ghazāli's life.

5. KHARRĀZ AND JUNAYD

A. The Doctrine of Kharraz

Kharrāz, like Junayd, updated the vast syntheses³²⁸ of Tustarī and Tirmidhī in a spirit better conforming to the demands of Sunni orthodoxy, correcting an excessive resemblance, in some respects, to Imāmī gnosticism and Hellenistic philosophy.

Abū Sa^cīd Aḥmad ibn ^cIsā Kharrāz Baghdādī³²⁹ (d. 289/899 in Cairo)³³⁰ was an independent author without any personal affiliation to Sufism but much influenced by the Sufis of Kūfa and Baghdād. He was also an admirer of Abū Hāshim and a disciple of Ibrahīm ibn al-Junayd, whose favorite hadīth he loved to recite: "He who macerates his flesh sees his sins

^{323.} In an independent section, xiii bis, Kilānī adds, "Gabriel did not move when he came to speak to the Prophet."

^{324.} Passion, Fr 3:93 n 5/Eng 3:83 n 197. Monist degeneration from the rule of meditation (cited herein, ch. 2 n 1).

^{325.} Qadima (notes Ibn al-Fartă).

^{326.} Mulidatha (ibid.). Nevertheless, adds Ibn al-Farrā, "the word irāda designates one of the uncreated attributes of God."

^{327. &}quot;God is the food (qūt) of the universe," says Makki (Sha^crāwi, Laṭā²if, II, 28; Cf. Tustari); and equivocal formula that does not distinguish grace and nature.

^{328.} Kalābādhī cites him as the foremost among Sufi writers "fi culūm al-ishārāt" (as opposed to mucāmalāt), ap. Tacuruf.

^{129.} Jami, 69, 81, 158. Sha rawi, Yawaq, 13; Tab., 1, 91, 81.

^{330.} Date given by Abū'l-Qāsim ibn Mardān Nahāwandī, his student from 272 to 286 (Mālinī, 14).

fall away, as a tree sees its falling leaves."331 He was a friend of Junayd and Ibn Ata.

When his major work, the Kitāb al-sirr, was condemned in Baghdād, Kharrāz was exiled to Bukhārā. The book is lost, except for one quotation.³³² His Kitāb al-sidq and Masā³il, which are extant,³³³ are simple collections of traditions (with isnād) on asceticism.³³⁴ But numerous isolated fragments attest to a precise mystical doctrine, of which we can reconstitute an outline:

In theodicy, he limits himself to defining the divine Essence "as that alone which has two opposite attributes (diddayn) simultaneously,"335 a trait Hallaj preserves in his caqada but criticizes as insufficient in his Bustān. 336

In mystical psychology, Kharrāz affirms against Tirmidhī the distinction between ^caql and nāḥ, ³³⁷ and reacts strongly against the master's intellectualist idealism. ³³⁸ Even more than Tustarī, Kharrāz underscores the actual possibility for the soul of mystical union, realized a pane post. In the process, he introduces several characteristic terms, which will become classical models. The "science of annihilation (fanā) and perpetuation (baqā)" consists of "annihilating oneself in God, in order to sunvive in Him." ³³⁹ Ascetic mortification must end in a positive, personal transfiguration of the soul by grace. ³⁴⁰ Kharrāz defines this final state as ^cayn al-jam^c, "essential union," of substance and substance. ³⁴¹ His doctrine of sanctification is riper and fuller than Bisṭāmī's. "As for the believer who has penetrated the anagogic sense ³⁴² of acts God gives him, and who persists in praising God above all

- 331. Mālinī, loc. cit.
- 332. Text (condemned proposition) given below (text at n 342). Another text, on sama^c, is also quoted: "... the faithful man who has come back to God, attached himself to Him and settled near Him, forgotten himself and all that is not God. And if he is asked, 'Where are you from?' or 'What do you want?' his only response is 'God!'" It is almost dhikr. (CAttar, II. 40; Sha^crawi, Tab., 1, 60).
- 333. Ms. Shahid Ali Pasha 1374, sec. V. The text of the Kitāb al-sidq was published, with an Eng. trans., by A. J. Arbetry, Calcutta, 1937.
 - 334. Sarrāj cites his adab al-salāt (Luma^c, 153).
 - 335. Ibn Arabi adds an ambiguous clause to this formula (Fut. IV, 42).
 - 336. Passion, Fr 3:139/Eng 3:126-27.
- 337. Ibid., Fr 3:24/Eng 3:16. He opposes rāļiānī to juthmānī. His doctrine of understanding, ilgā al-sam^c, then istinbāt (Sarrāj, Luma^c, 79), was borrowed from Muḥāsibī and was later taken up by Suhrawardī of Aleppo (hayākil, on Qur. 75:19).
 - 338. His use of the word azama is Karramiyyan.
 - 339. Baqli, Tafsir, f. 215b; Awārif, IV, 302, 303. Junayd condemns this innovation (Jami, 82).
- 340. He explains that if souls are not "burned" by divine irradiation, it is because they were created with divine light (ap. Baqli, on Qur. 24:35; cf. Tustari); Hallaj, less emanationist, explains the phenomenon by amāna (Passion, Fr 3:20/Eng 3:12).
- 341. On Qur. 58:22: "As for those whose sign is glory and bliss, who have received grace and suffered no loss, they are permanently under His guard and protection, their defeats are light, the stage they have attained is beyond all stages, and their thoughts are beyond all thought; they are in essential union with God forever (fi cayn al-jame mac al-Haqq abadan)" (Baqli, II, 316; cf. I, 400).
 - 342. Passion, Fr 3:130/Eng 3:118; notion outlined by Misri (Attar, I, 127).

else — God sanctifies his soul." As corollaries of this statement, Kharrãz sketches two Ḥallājian theses: the failure of Satan, for "having strained to please God" (idlāl),³⁴³ and the ṣalāt ʿalā'l-Nabī's inoperativeness for advancement along the mystical path: "Forgive me, but loving God makes me forget to love you,"³⁴⁴ he said to Muḥammad, because mystical union bypasses the Prophet.³⁴⁵

Kharrāz is not without faults. Imitating Tirmidhī, he descends into jafr.³⁴⁶ Following Miṣrī, he demonstrates some indulgence in the samā^c, mental inebriation, the cult of ecstasy for its own sake, which is the source of the sensual nuance that somewhat obscures the sentiment in this lovely fragment:³⁴⁷

Happy the man who has drunk from the cup of His love, who has savored ecstatic conversation with the glorious Lord, who has approached Him through the joys found in loving Him. His heart is filled with delight, he flies to God with happiness, he aspires to Him with desire. Ah what a trance of regret the Lord makes him savor! What servitude! What languor for the man who has no fellow traveler but the Lord, no intimate but Him!

But Kharraz explicitly rejects the dangerous deviations of the samā^c.148

B. The Works and Role of Junayd349

Junayd's doctrine is an even more severe and circumspect revision of the systems previously proposed than Kharrāz's. I give only a list of his works and a summary of his doctrine.

- 141. Text, ap. Tawasin, p. 171; cf. Passion, Ft 3:324/Eng 3:306-7.
- 344. Qush., 174; cf. Passion, Fr 3:215-16/Eng 3:203.
- 345. Misri had hinted at this (Sarraj, Lumac, 104).
- 346. Passion, Fr 3:106/Eng 3:95.
- 347. Ap. Sarrāj, Luma^c, 59. The remark was made by "one of the Sālimiyya" (Makki, Qūt, 11, 61; Tustari, Tafsū, 9), about Kharrāz applying poems of profane love to God, as he sang of Laylā or Sawdā. Compare Ḥallāj on Qur. 30:45 to this fragment.
 - 348. Qush., 1, 168.

349. Junayd is to be carefully distinguished from his homonyms: Ibrāhim ibn al-Junayd (d. c. 270), Junayd al-Khaṭth (Fihnist, 186; Harawl, Dhamm, 1172), Abū ʿAbdallah Iskāf Junayd Isrāhāni (Samʿānī, Ansāh, s.n.; a disciple), Abū Zurʿa Muḥammad ibn al-Junayd Kashshi and Abū'l-Khayr Junayd (Maqdist, Homonyma, supp., p. 184), Abū ʿAbdallah ibn Junayd, friend of Ibn ʿArabl (Hilyat al-abdāl), and the Shīrātī family of the Banū Junayd (from our twelfth to fifteenth century). On Sarī Saqaṭī (d. 253), Junayd's teacher, see Hilya, X, 116-27; Ibn ʿAsākir, VI, 71-79. Sarī, at whose feet Junayd had himself buried in Shūnīz, appears to have been a profound mystic. In his youth he had known Maʿrūf, the solemn illiterate of Karkh in Baghdād, who loved God alone (according to ʿAlī ibn Muwaffaq [Iliyā, IV, 221]), and who prayed ten times a day for God to pacify the Community of believers (Passion, Fr 3:224/Eng 3:212). Sarī, during his long voyages, notably to Syria (where he learned the story of the Three Men Walled-in Alive, which popular tradition combined with that of the Seven Sleepers; and where he also learned complex technical

- 1. Dawā al-arwāḥ, Cairo ms. (3 folios) = ms. Shahīd Alī Pāshā 1374, sec. IX. Compare with the title of his Dawā al-tafrīṭ, mentioned by Sulamī (Tafsīṭ, on Qur. 8:24).
- 2. Risāla ilā Yūsuf ibn Ḥusayn Rāzī, ms. S.A. 1374, sec. I.
- 3. Risāla ilā ba^cd ikhwānihi, id., sec. II.
- 4. Risāla ilā Yaḥyā ibn Mucādlı Rāzī (d. 258), id., sec. III. This famous letter is mentioned by Sarrāj (Lumac 358) in the following century. Whether the purported recipient could in fact have received it is a matter of chronological dispute.
- 5. Risāla ilā ba^cd ikhwānihi, id., sec. IV.
- 6. Risāla ilä Amr Makkī, id., sec. V (9 double folios).
- 7. Risāla (no. II) ilā Yūsuf Rāzī, id., sec. VI.
- 8. Risāla fī'l-sukr, id., sec. VII.
- 9. Fașl fi'l-ifāqa, id., sec. VIII.
- 10. Kitāb al-fānā, id., sec. X.
- 11. Kitāb al-mīthāq, id., sec. XI.
- 12. Kitāb fi'l- ulūhiyya, id., sec. XII.
- 13. Kitāb al-farq bayn al-ikhlās wa'l-sidq, id., sec. XIII.
- 14. Kitāb al-tawhīd, id., sec. XIV.
- 15. VI masā³il (cf. his Masā³il al-shāmiyīn, cited by Qush.), id., sec. XV.
- 16. Adab al-muftaqir ilä Allāh, id., XXVI.
- 17. Sharh shatahāt Abī Yazīd (Ibn Farrukhān Dūrī's recension), extracts in Sarrāj, Luma^c 380-82, 385, 386, 387, 387-89 (cf. 347).³⁵⁰
- 18. Taṣḥīh al-irāda; lost; cited by Hujwirī, Kashf, 338.

HIS DOCTRINE

I must make a fundamental correction of what was said on this subject in my preceding work.³⁵¹ Prolonged scrutiny has made me recognize that

terminology), maintained intact Ma^crūf's double vocation: "to take on oneself all the sorrows of the world" (Hilya, X, 118), and to be one of the ten "true servants of God," after a triple decimation (of 10,000 called, 9,000 preferred the world; of 1000, 900 preferred Paradise; of 100, 90 retreated before Hell). Expiation of Adam's original sin of the luqma, by proposing that he himself should suffer this divine burden, which the strongest mountains could not bear. Here the exegesis of Qur. 33:72 that Hallāj would later employ is recognizable. In Egypt there have been descendants of Sarī ('Ali Pasha Mubārak, XII, 5) at Girga. On Sarl, cf. also Khaṭib, 1X, 187–92; and Hurayfish, Rawd, 196, 197, 206, 232. A maqām to Junayd exists at Gouraya (near Cherchell [Algeria]), beneath a masjid dedicated to Ibr. Khawwāṣ (photo in Essai supplied by Dermenghem).

^{350.} According to Sahlagt (Nür, f. 114), Junayd claimed to have made the Arabic translation of these texts, which had come down to him in Persian through Bistāmi's nephew, Abū Mūsā Saibn Adam.

^{351.} Passion, 1st ed., pp. 37-38, 401 [and 2nd ed., Fr 2:108/Eng 2:101]. I had attributed too much importance to Khuldi's tales [cf. ch. 5 n 365].

Junayd's doctrine is much nearer to Ḥallāj's than I had thought. I hesitated for a long time because of Junayd's great reserve on decisive points; also, it was repugnant to me to see in that reserve any dissemblance, or to make Junayd the author of two simultaneous, contradictory teachings, the first exoteric and the second esoteric. In reality we must take the just measure first of the personal temperament of this cautious, shy savant, who was conscious of the dangers of heterodoxy peculiar to mysticism; and then of the proven wisdom of a spiritual director who would suspend judgment, leaving questions open, as long as he thought the experimental results were not decisive, crucial.

Junayd was orthodox, and found fault with Muḥāsibī for using kalām.³⁵² As for Ḥallāj, on the other hand, if he reasoned like the mutakallimūn in certain ways, he did so only in order to show that their dialectic was inconclusive.³⁵³ Junayd criticized the mental attitude of those who attribute a permanent objective reality to the aḥwāl (states of mystical consciousness);³⁵⁴ though Ḥallāj is in some respects vulnerable to this criticism, all of his works finally show that he adopted Junayd's doctrine.³⁵⁵ Junayd affirmed the preeminence of cilm over macnifa, and of taḥnīm over ibāḥa;³⁵⁶ he meant only the provisional precedence, acknowledged by Ḥallāj, of a precept (for the group) over advice (only for certain individuals).³⁵⁷

Junayd was the first author to embrace the problem of mystical union in all its fullness and to explain it correctly; he found the exact threshold of the operation of transcendence, the night of the will³⁵⁸ whose anguish Biṣṭāmī had foreseen and whose trial Ḥallāj would undergo. Junayd did not push the experiment as far as they: he presented its conditions and allowed his listeners to draw their own conclusions from personal experience. When the case of Ḥallāj came up, Junayd's school split between Jurayrī, a partisan of the obvious intellectual solution,³⁵⁹ in which it is observed that God is the supereminent "I" of any sentence spoken by any

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352. Passion, Fr 3:62/Eng 3:53.
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^{353.} Passion, Fr 3:141-42, 359/Eng 3:128-29, 341-42.

^{354.} Ibid., Fr 1:167/Eng 1:125-26.

^{355.} Ibid., Fr 3:48 n 5/Eng 3:40 n 106.

^{356.} Ibid., Fr 3:239, 70/Eng 3:225, 6t. Cf. the bitter quotation from Junayd, refuted by Ibn al-Qayyim in his l^ctirāḍāt: "If children are the punishment reserved for permitted desire, what will be the punishment for that which is forbidden?" This statement is attributed to Ibn Fürak (Huart, Lit. arabe, 224).

^{357.} Passion, Fr 3:201, 228/Eng 3:189, 216.

^{358. &}quot;Let the servant, with respect to God, be like a marionette (shabah)...let him come back, at the end, to his point of departure, and let him be as he was before he was given existence" (ap. Qush., 177; Sha^ctāwī, Tah., I, 84; taken up by Kilāni, Bahja, 79).

^{359.} Which satisfied the monists, and led them to esoterism; Jurayrt, who would have liked Bistami to confess, of God, "I am you," was the first to declare that Hallaj had to be executed (Passion, Fr 1:575-76/Eng 1:528-29; herein, text at n 192).

man; 360 and Ibn Atā, who accepted the possibility of a transcendent intervention by grace, filtered through the chosen personality of a saint. 361

Like Hallai, Junayd meditated on the primordial Covenant and conceived it as a declaration, made in our name in advance, of love for God. 362 Therefore, he taught, in order to rediscover this pure word of acquiescence to God's will in ourselves, we must progressively and implacably cleanse our entire being, achieving abandonment of the memory, intelligence, and will. The purpose is to reach the fanā bi'l-Madhkūr, 363 "annihilation in Him of Whom we are thinking." Junayd rejected the second of Khartaz's pair of terms, fanā-baqā, as inadequate; he was right to judge that there was no logical symmetry between the state of consumption that the creature can obtain and the state of transfiguration in which the Creator can immortalize him. Thirdly, Junayd tried to define what this final state might be. It is the "return to our origin (bidāya)," to the idea that God formed as a model for us in the Covenant. 364 Therefore, I came to think Junayd was teaching that the person of the mystic could be reduced to a divine idea, a mere, irrealizable virtuality. I was mistaken. He explains that the phrase, "return to our origin," indicates access to the Creator's life itself: 365 "The living being is he who bases his life so completely on the life of his Creator, not on the survival of his corporeal form (haykal), that the reality of his life is his death, which is the way to the level of primordial Life (hayāt aṣliyya)."366 How can we characterize this new life? Junayd, after studying Bistami, observes that his experiment is incomplete; 367 instead love must achieve, "through a permutation with the qualities of the lover, a penetration of the qualities of the Beloved."368 That is the final hypothesis.

It is now apparent that Junayd made a complete theoretical outline of Hallāj's doctrine. The Dawā al-anwāh³⁶⁹ shows that some men, through the grace of loving preference of divine providence, are invested with the very

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360. The question of the huwa huwa (Passion, Fr 3:193/Eng 3:181).
361. Ibid., Fr 1:339-40/Eng 1:293.
362. Ibid., Fr 1:117; 3:117/Eng 1:76; 3:105-6.
363. Ap. Baqll, I, 584 (cf. ghayba, ibid. I, 185) [v. herein, ch. 5 n 305].
364. Passion. Fr 1:117; 3:53/Eng 1:76; 3:45.
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365. Or, in his first formulation, "extraction of the Absolute from the contingent" (ifrid al-qidam, which prefigures the Hallajian ifrid al-Wähid; Passion, Fr 1:117, 664/Eng 1:76, 614). The formula is inadequate, but its anti-monism irritated Ibn Arabl so much (Tajalliyāt) that he declared, "You can only distinguish the absolute from the contingent if you are neither one nor the other" (Salāmi, Radd, I, 363). Therefore we must correct the assimilation of Junayd and Ibn Arabl, suggested in Passion, 1st ed., 37–38. [For the corrected version of the same passage, on Junayd's doctrine, see Passion Fr 1:117–18/Eng 1:76–77. Cf. herein, ch. 5 n 351.]

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366. Baqli, II, 173.
367. Herein, text at n 211.
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^{368.} Passion, Fr 3:18/Eng 3:11.

^{369.} Dawā al-anwāḥ, fl. t-5 of my copy: preeternal iṣṭinā', then iṣṭifā (Moses), then ru²ya (Muḥammad), then munājāh given only to the ahl al-muwālāh.

secret of revelation itself and are allowed an experimental taste of the prophetic vocation's successive stages. In this short work, Junayd constructed the first "dynamic synthesis of the Qurdan" conceived as a "manual of ascension towards God," which is precisely the theme of the Najm idhā hawā of Ḥallāj.

Junayd, correcting Tustari, also presents the Ḥallajian theme of the Ṭā Sīn al-Azal, ³⁷⁰ describing a vision of Satan that he has obtained after fifteen years of prayers to God. He claims to have asked, "Why did you not bow down before Adam?" "Zeal in love stopped me from bowing down before anyone but God." (Horrified, Junayd heard an inner voice say, "Tell him 'You lie! If you had been a true servant, you would not have transgressed against His command.")³⁷¹

Ibn Atā's critiques. Another cause of my hesitation to affirm the kinship of Junayd's and Ḥallāj's formulas, in spite of their relationship as teacher and student, was the existence of critiques made by Ibn Atā, Ḥallāj's friend, against several points of Junayd's teachings. A reexamination has shown that these critiques are rectifications rather than true divergences: a reduction (from eight to four) of the number of major prophets to be imitated; and the soul's fuller and more loving embrace of all of God's will, no matter how awful it may seem. Ibn Atā clarifies Junayd's idea of "the primordial life": 374 "According to the divine science, God revives him who is 'living' and communicates with him through (direct) vision, understanding, hearing and salām." Ibn Atā also makes formulations more explicit than Junayd's of Ḥallāj's theses on replacing the hajj 376 and on the Real that is "beyond reality."

6. ḤALLĀJ'S SYNTHESIS AND LATER INTERPRETATIONS

The preceding monographs show how much the presentation of doctrine in Hallāj's work depends upon the terminology gradually established by his predecessors. Almost all of his vocabularly,³⁷⁸ his principal allego-

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370. Hujwīri, Kashf, 129-30; Ibn al-Najjār, ap. Şafadi, Sharlı risālat Ibn Zaydūn, 83-84.
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^{171.} The section in parentheses is added in Hujwiri's, version.

^{372.} Passion, Fr 3:31 n 7, 212-13/Eng 3:24 n 27, 200.

^{373.} Sacrifice and suffering (Passion, Fr 1:131; 3:125-27, 130/Eng 1:91; 3:114-15, 118); wajd (Ibid., Fr 3:78/Eng 3:68); khāṭirān (Ibid., Fr 3:30-31/Eng 3:23).

^{374.} Bagli, II, 174.

^{375.} Passion, Fr 1:133; 3:179/Eng 1:93; 3:167.

^{376.} Ibid., Fr 3:244/Eng 3:230; herein, text at ch. 2 n 63.

^{377.} Al-liaga asbaq min haqiqat al-muhiqa (Baqli, 1, 587); Passion, Fr 3:89/Eng 3:78. Ibn Ata, like Kharrāz, yields to the charms of parables of profane love (on Zulaykha: Baqli, 1, 422). 178. Passion, Fr 3:14-15/Eng 3:7-8.

ries,³⁷⁹ even his rule for living,³⁸⁰ can be found in those who preceded him. His originality is in the superior cohesion of the definitions he brings together; and in the firmness of the guiding intention that led him to affirm in public, at the cost of his own life, a doctrine his teachers had not dared make accessible to all. Just as the rationalist movement in Greece ended in Socrates with the affirmation of a religious philosophy valid for all, so the ascetic movement in Islam ended with the proclamation of an experimental mysticism, providing aid to all. Ḥallāj, far from being an aberration within the Islamic Community of his time, represents the final completion of the mystical vocations that had sprung up throughout the first centuries of Islam through meditated reading of the Qur³ān and the "interiorization" of a fervent, humble ritual life.

Here is the translation in extenso of the eighteen sentences of Hallaj chosen by Sulami to place their author in the gallery of psychological portraits in chronological order that constitutes his Tabaqāt al-Ṣūfiyya:*

- 1. He has clothed them (by creating them) in the veil of their name,¹⁸¹ and they exist; but if He made the knowledge of His Power manifest to them, they would faint away; and if He unveiled His reality to them, they would die.³⁸²
- 2. The names of God?³⁸³ From the point of view of our perception, they are synonymous (lit.: there is one name [alone]);³⁸⁴ from God's point of view, they are reality.³⁸⁵
- 3. The inspiration that comes from God³⁸⁶ is that about which no doubt³⁸⁷ arises.
- 4. When the faithful servant 188 is freed and reaches the stage of wisdom, God sends him a permanent inspiration, which then preserves his conscience so that only (true) suggestions coming from God may be conceived in it. And the mark of the sage is that he is emptied of (concern for) this world and the next. 189
- * See Pedersen's edition, p. 308-13, and Akhbār *1, where the numbering is different.
- 379. Herein, ch. 3, sec. 1. B.
- 380. Comp. Hallaj (ap. Sulami) on Qur. 49:3; with the risala supposedly by Hasan (Passion, Fr 3:242 n 7/Eng 3:228 n 71), and the rules of Ibn Karram and Tustari (Tafsir, 61).
- 381. Akhb. *1 alif-zāl (4) [see ch. 1 n 1 for the form of this and several of the following citations] = nos. 1-5. Passion, Fr 3:183/Eng 3:171.
 - 382. A variant (Akhb.) teads, "they would be annihilated."
 - 383. Passion, Fr 3:184/Eng 3:171.
- 384. Var. (Akhb.): "there is one description (alone)." [Pedersen, going against most of the manuscripts, including the one from which Massignon quotes, reads not ism but tasm.]
- 385. "Wa min hayth al-Haqq, haqiqa" (Sulami). A variant (Akhb.), probably Hanbalite: "from the point of view of divine reality, they are God Himself."
 - 386. Passion, Fr 3:31/Eng 3:24.
- 187. Var.: nothing. [LM later decided (A * 1 jim), with Pedersen, against shakk, which is translated here, for this variant, shay? giving the sense, "that which nothing opposes."]
 - 388. Passian, Fr 3:31; 2:54-56/Eng 3:24; 2:47-50.
 - 389. This clause is missing in the London ms. Ibn Aqila adds the gloss, "and to be concerned

- 5. (Hallaj, when asked ³⁹⁰ why Moses had coveted the vision [of the divine Essence] and asked God for it [Qur. 7:139], answered), Since Moses had gone into solitude (away from every created thing) for God, God was alone in Moses, for whom He became the one Object of all thought. God became ³⁹¹ what prevented him from seeing all perceived objects, what came face to face with him and erased all other perceptible presences, by an unveiling (kashf), ³⁹² not a concealment (taghayyub). That is what pushed Moses to ask for the vision, not anything else. ³⁹³
- 5 bis. (Here Sulami gives the quatrain Anta bayn al-shaghāf..., translated in Passion Fr. 3:50/Eng 3:41-42.)
- 6. The novice ¹⁹⁴ who desires (murid) God must fire (straight) at Him, ¹⁹⁵ on target with the first shot, and not shift ³⁹⁶ (his bow), having failed to hit Him.
- 7. The novice who desires God is outside secondary causes and both worlds, and that is what gives him mastery 397 over the inhabitants (of the worlds). 398
- 8. The prophets have received power ¹⁹⁹ over the divine graces [al-aḥwāl]; they have them in their possession; they have them at their disposal (to distribute them), the graces do not have the prophets at theirs (to transform them). As for the others (the saints),⁴⁰⁰ the graces have received power over them; it is the graces that have them at their disposal.
- 9. O my God! You know I am powerless 401 to offer You the appointed thanks that must be given to You. Come into me then, and thank Yourself; that is true thankfulness! There is no other.
 - 10. Whoever considers his (own) works 402 loses sight of Him for Whom he

with God alone." Cf. Passion, Fr 3:226/Eng 3:213-14; and Ibn Samcun, ap. Ibn Arabi, Muhādarāt, 11, 184.

^{390.} Akhb. *t wāw (4), a continuation of Kacbī 1.

^{391.} Sulami's text, which is corrected by Akhbār as follows: "God became what cut off his vision from all sides, erasing all sides, in every perceived object; what confronted him, taking the place of everything and every presence in front of him. The matk (of supremacy) of the invisible which appeated on the visible, by an unveiling of the mystery of disguise (the diacritics of the C. ms. make this read ghayb al-taghayyub, not cayn al-yaqīn), is what led him to request the vision. In this, the tongue of the visible (form) only translated the invisible reality; not anything else."

^{392.} A word weakened by the Hanbalite tradition, through attempts to explain it. Taghayyub is the disguise of creative action, what hides it from our senses.

^{393.} Refutation of the Salimiyyan thesis.

^{394.} Akhb. *1 ha^2 - ya^3 (6) = nos. 6-9.

^{395.} Var.: rise towards Him.

^{396.} Var.: interrupt (his shooting).

^{397.} Miracles.

^{198.} Here Ka^cbi interpolates the sentence translated in Passion, 1st ed., 314, l. 5. ["What is mysticism?" "It is what you see" (= the cross), cf. Passion Fr 1:659 ff./Eng 1:609 ff.]

^{399.} Passion, Fr 3:211-12/Eng 3:199.

^{400.} Added rightly by Ibn al-Dac1 and Ibn al-Sabbagh.

^{401.} Passion, Ft 1:319/Eng 1:273.

^{402.} Akhb. *1 yab-yaw (7) = nos. 10-14.

does them; whoever considers Him for Whom he does his own works loses sight of those works.⁴⁰³

- II. God is He towards Whom ritual gestures are directed, and He upon Whom acts of obedience are founded. One bears witness only before Him, and nothing is perceived without Him. It is thanks to the (guiding) effluvia of His counsels that the qualities (= virtues of mysticism) cohere. It is by concentrating your efforts on Him that you will advance in the degrees (of the mystical path).
- 12. It is not fitting that someone who (still) considers or mentions a created thing should declare, "Certainly I understand Who the One is, from Whom the monads⁴⁰⁵ have come."
- 13. Our tongues⁴⁰⁶ serve to speak words, and they die from this spoken language; our carnal selves (anfus) are employed in our actions, and they die from this employment.
- 14. (Maintaining) a fearful reserve in the presence of the Lord deprives His friends' hearts of the joy (to be had) in receiving His favors; what am I saying? Keeping a fearful reserve during the ritual act suffices to deprive His friends' hearts of the joy of obedience (to Him).
- 14 bis. (Here Sulami gives the Mawājīdu Ḥaqq..., translated ap. Passion, Fr 3:58 n 4/Eng 3:50 n 174.)
- 15. He who is inebriated⁴⁰⁷ by the cups⁴⁰⁸ of divine union can no longer use the language⁴⁰⁹ of divine inaccessibility;⁴¹⁰ and there is more: he who is inebriated by the (first) gleams of divine inaccessibility already speaks of the realities of divine union; for the inebriate is he who speaks of every secret that is (still) hidden (before it is unveiled to him).
- 16.411 He who seeks (to discover)412 God by the light of faith413 is like someone seeking (to discover) the sun by starlight.
- 17. (Ḥallāj said to one of the disciples 414 of [Abū Alī] Jubbā 1), Exactly as God came to create the bodies (= substances) without (being incited to it by a

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403. Cf. herein, ch. 3, sec. 4; Passion, Ft 3: 86/Eng 3: 75. 404. Al-Maşmüd ilayhi. 405. Aliād. 406. Passion, Fr 3: 365/Eng 3: 347. 407. Akhb., *1 yal-kā (8) = nos. 15-18. 408. Var. Sulami's text has "lights." 409. 'Ibāra. Var.: 'Ibāda, titual. 410. Tajrīd, divine transcendence. 411. Passion, Fr 3: 67/Eng 3: 57.
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^{412.} The technical word illimas means "the search to determine (the new moon)," the calculation (of the first of the month) either by direct observation of the sky (to which Hallaj alludes) or by reference to tables.

^{413. &}quot;Without personal revelation," added gloss.

^{414.} Passion, Fr 3:123/Eng 3:111.

mediate)* cause, so He came to create (in them) their attributes (= accidents) without (being incited to it by a) cause. Just as the servant (= the man) does not strictly possess the root of his act, so he does not strictly possess the act itself.

18. He has not separated Himself from carnal nature, 415 nor has He attached Himself to it. 416

The gradual distortion of the doctrine and legend of Ḥallāj has allowed me to follow the stages of decomposition of the great mystical movement in Islam. The correct solution of the central problem, mystical union, was insinuated by Ḥasan and Ibn Adham, sensed by Bisṭāmī, glimpsed by Tustarī and Junayd, and finally presented by Ḥallāj through a complex method defining it as an intermittent identification ⁴¹⁷ of subject and Object. The identification is renewed only by a continual, amorous exchanging of roles between the two, a vital alternation (like oscillation, pulsation, sensation, consciousness) that is imposed in superhuman, transcendent fashion on the heart of a given human subject, without ever achieving permanence or a stable regularity during the subject's mortal life. ⁴¹⁸

This solution avoided both the ideological intellectualism of the mutakallimūn and the Hellenists' championing of individual freedom, both the antagonistic dualism of the Hashwiyya and Qarmathian monism. It was promptly distorted. Wāṣiṭī, the first theoretician of Sufism after Hallāj, bent and slid towards the monist libertarianism of the Sālimiyya; Fāris tried to react against this tendency, without success. It is to Wāṣiṭī that we should give the role assigned to Ḥallāj by Kremer, that of precursor, in the fourth century A.H., to Ibn 'Arabī's monism. Beside Wāṣiṭī, 'Abdallāh Qurashī' and Abū Bakr Qaḥṭabī' attempted analogous systematizations.

Some mystics saw the danger of the Sālimiyyan doctrine; it was denounced with clairvoyance by Ibn al-Haysam of the Karrāmiyya and by the Ḥanbalites Ḥuṣrī, Ibn Sam ūn, Harawī, and Kīlānī. Ibn Khafif thought he had found a decisive weapon against it in the scholastic ideology of the

^{* &}quot;Cause" here is not wasita (cf. ch. 1, sec. 2, translator's note under the root LBS) but "illa. There are two possibilities for Massignon's interpretation of the Arabic: (1) an intermediary is seen as a cause relative to God's originating the act of creation, in which case "mediate" is used as in clt. one; (2) in Hallāj's straw-man sentence, something would more effectively "cause" God to create the bodies (if God's being "caused" to do anything were not impossible), in which case "mediate" would be used in the true sense

^{415.} Bashariyya.

^{416.} Passion, Fr 3:58/Eng 3:49. Compare the formula of the falāsifa criticized by Ghazāli (Tahāſut, I, 45): "The First could not be associated with another by genus, nor could it be differentiated by difference." And Jīlī's monist formula, "You are not weaned (from us), and You do not wean us (from You)" (sayniyya; condemned ap. Shastawi, Minan, II, 29).

^{417.} Passion, Fr 3:360/Eng 3:342.

^{418.} Ibid., Fr 3:341-42/Eng 3:324.

^{419.} Ibid., Fr 3:299/Eng 3:281-82.

^{420.} Sharh al-tawliid, extract ap. Hilya.

^{421.} Baqli, 11, 226; Farq, 259.

Ash^carites, and the last Ḥallājians imitated him: Abū ^cUthmān Kirkintī Maghribī and Daqqāq rallied to Ibn Fūrak; Naṣrābādhī, to Isfarā²inī (both were Ash^carites).⁴²²

But Qushayrī's attempted synthesis of Ash^carite dogma and mystical elements was insufficient. Ghazālī's synthesis, upon which he meditated for so long, made such grave concessions to the Sālimiyya (because of the necessities of the struggle against the Qarmathians) that theologians who adopted it were led backwards to monist solutions; this danger, already visible in Suhrawardī of Aleppo, triumphed in Ibn ^cArabī.

Smitten with formal logic, Ibn ^cArabī effectively eliminated all transcendent intervention of the divinity from the mystical domain. Such is the foundation of his critique of the old mystics, Yaḥyä, Rāzī, Junayd, and Hallāj, and of his sympathy for the Sālimiyya. And Ibn ^cArabī accepted the extreme consequences of his thesis: he retracted the primacy once accorded to introspection, to the humble inner struggle to examine the conscience; he conceded preeminence to a subtle, theoretical culture, in which purely speculative souls without moral control over themselves experienced the nuances of intellectual ecstasy. Socially, a divorce was consummated between the monastic vocation's reserves of spiritual energy and the Islamic Community, which should have been revived by the daily intercession, prayers, example, and sacrifice of the ascetics.

All of these internal symptoms of social decadence appeared in the fourth century. Their aggravation in secular society is the true cause, deeper than economic and military developments, of the current disintegration of the Islamic Community, for whose salvation the first Muslim believers struggled and suffered so much, with ascetics and mystics in the first line of attack, making holy war in the name of the one God not only on the frontiers but in the capital, not only among idolaters but deep in their own hearts: Hasan, Ibn Wāsi^c, ^cUtba and Shaqīq, Ibn Hanbal and Hallāj.

APPENDIX: ON MASSIGNON'S "SUPPLEMENT OF ḤALLĀJIAN TEXTS"

In the French editions of the Essai, the "Supplement of Ḥallājian Texts," in Massignon's handwriting, most of the texts in Arabic, some in Persian (on pages *1-*104 in the 1922 ed. and, slightly expanded, pages 336-449 in the 1954 ed.; cf. Passion, Fr 3:294, 367/Eng 3:276, 349), contains most of the referents for the inventory of Ḥallāj's technical vocabulary in chapter 1, above. The supplement has not been reproduced here. In 1922, only 21 of the 386 fragments had already appeared elsewhere in print, but many of the sources have been edited since then. What follows here is a brief identification of the texts and, where possible, a concordance between the numbering system to which Massignon refers in chapter 1 (see ch. 1 n 1) and the page or paragraph numbers in printed editions.

A) 27 Riwāyāt of al-Ḥallāj, in Persian. See bib., s.n., Ḥallāj, for the Arabic original and the French and English versions. The text given in the supplement of the Essai corresponds to Corbin's ed. of Baqlī's Sharḥ alshathiyāt, as follows:

LM's number	Corbin's paragraph number
introductory statement	1192 (p. 601)
1	1193
2	1201
3	1211
4	1215
\$	1217
6	607 (p. 335)
7	610
8	612
9	617
10	620
11	623
12	626
13	627
14	631
15	633

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LM's number	Corbin's paragraph number	
16	635	
17	637	
18	639	
19	641	
20	644	
21	646	
22	648	
23	652	
24	656	
25	658	
26	660	
27	663	
fasl fi adilla	667-72	

- B) Isolated fragments, remarked upon in *Passion*, Fr 3:294/Eng 3:276, taken from the following works:
- 1. Kalābādhī, Tacarruf. P 143a, mss. QA, Oxford, Vienna, Faydiyya, Br. The three Cairene eds. - Arberry (1933), Abd al-Halim Mahmud (1960), and Nawāwi (1969) - seem to be based (although Arberry's is the only ed. to state it) principally on two mss. in the Dar al-kutub, which are not the ones Massignon used. Several of his quotations are absent from the printed eds., and, as a result, the concordance below is incomplete. The extracts are numbered consecutively through 61. The name of Hallāj is intentionally omitted from most of the quotations. (On Kalābādhī's intentions regarding Hallajianism, see Jacqueline Chabbi, "Réflexions sur le soufisme iranien primitif," JAP 266 [1978], 37-55). And, already in 1922, Massignon noted that 36 of the extracts were certainly to be attributed to Hallai (marked below with an exclamation point) and 7 of them certainly to other authors (marked below with an asterisk). Massignon's numbering in the Essai corresponds to Arberry's and subsequent eds. (col. 2) and Nawāwi's ed. (col. 3) as shown below; attributions to authors other than Hallaj are noted in parentheses:

LM's number	Ch. number in Arberry and Cairo eds.	Nawawi's page number
ı	20 (Sahl Tustari)	78 (text differs)
2		
3		
4		
51		
16		
7!	\$	48-49

LM's number	Ch. number in Arbetty and Cairo eds.	Nawāwī's page number
8!	10	55
9* (Sahl)	14	64
10		
11!		
12!	21	79
13!	21	79
14		
15!	21	80
16!	21	81
17!	21	81
18!		
19		
20*		
21!		
22!		
23!	28, 27	100, 99
24! (cf. Baqli on	28	100 (partial)
Qur. 39:57)	. 4	
25	38	114
26!	38	115
26 bis! 27*	38	115
28* (Probably Muh.	4.7	***
b. Ali al-Tirmidhi)	43	119
29!	4.3	120
30!	43	121
31!	44 44	121
32!	47	123
33!	47	124
34!	47	125
35!	48 (Junayd)	126
36	50	130
37	5	-3-
38!	51	131
39	53	135
401	55	139
4I	55	140
42!	57	143
43	57	143
44!	58	145
45	58	146
46	58	147
47*	59	147
48!	60	158
49!	60	159
50	60	160
SI!	61	161
52!	62	164
53	64	168
54*	65	172-173
55*	65 66	173
56	65 66	174
57!		175-176

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LM's number	Ch. number in Arberry and Cairo eds.	Nawāwī's page number
58!	66	177
59!	69	181
60!	74	189
61	64	168 (partial)

2. Sulami, Tafsīr. P 170d, mss. YJ, QA, Azh, et al. This work, a collection of commentary by various authors, is not yet published complete (though some excerpts have been, as the Tafsīrs of Ibn Atā and Imām Jafar: see bib., s.n. Nwyia). The extracts, numbered 1-208, are comments on the verses of the Qura given below, in Flügel's numbering system; LM's numbers are given in italics, once every ten, so that, for example, number 10 from the system of the Essay, ch. 1 and the supplement, corresponds to the first of three Hallājian comments on sura 3, verse 16, in Flügel's ed.:

\$\text{\$t\$ 1:1 (2x), 2:14, \$1 (2x), \$to9, 256 (2x), 3:16, \$to 3:16 (3x), 3:25 (2x), 29, 77, 89, 138, 188, 20 3:188, 4:103, 124, 138, \$13, 23, 39, 101, 116, 119, \$to 6:2, 18, 19, \$3, 66, 69, 71, 76, 91 (2x), \$to 6:103, 7:1 (2x), 22, 28, 97 (2x), 139, 140, 158, \$to 7:171 (3x), 204, 9:43, \$to 9:112, \$to 9:112, 129, 10:1, 33 (2x), \$to 10:35 (2x), 43, 82, 11:1, 3, 47, 12:67, 76, 106, \$to 13:9, 28, 42, 14:15, 15:75, 15:99 (cf. Baqli's Tafsir, 14), 16:21, 17:72, 76, 110, \$to 18:8, 17, 48, 64, 78-81, 107, 109, 19:13, \$5, \$7, \$to 19:57, 20:18 (2x), 26, 106, 21:38, 43, 83, 110, 23:12, \$to 23:12 (2x), \$14, \$15, 93, 24:26, 31, \$3 (3x), \$10 24:37 (2x), 24:53, 25:2, 4, 22 (2x), 60, 27:29, 60, 120 28:24, 46, 73, \$5, 30:39 (2x), 45, 32:16, 33:23, 35, 130 33:72 (2x), 35:16, 29, 36:10, 21, \$5, \$2, 37:106, 39:23, \$to 39:23 (3x), \$5, 63, 67, 40:15, 67, 42:17, 44:51, \$50 46:25, (2x), 47:21 (2x), \$48:10, 29, 49:3, \$17, 50:1, 36, \$160 50:36 (2x), 50:37, \$1:21, \$2:47 (2x), \$3:3, 24, 43, \$5:11, \$70 56:23, \$7:3 (4x), \$5, \$8:8, 22 (2x), \$9:8, \$180 62:4, 64:3, 65:2, 68:4 (5x), 69:38, 72:7, \$190 74:3-4, \$2, 82:8, \$8:3, \$8:8, \$13, \$19, 90:17, 96:19, 98:4, \$200 98:5, \$102:5, 7 (2x), \$109:1, \$12:1 (3x), \$113:1.

One additional extract (1954), on 19:73.

3. Baqlī, Tafsīr ('Arā'is al-bayān). P 380a, Cawnpore lithograph, see bib. Extracts numbered 1-32. LM's numbers correspond to the Hallājian commentary on different verses of the Qur²ān in this way:

LM's number	Sura and verse	
ť	1:5	
2	1:5	
3	2:32	
4	3:4	
5	4:62, 85	
6	6:148	
7	7:140	
8	10:36	
9	12:83	
10	12:83	
11	14:7	
12	14:37	

LM's number	umber Sura and verse	
13	14:41	
14	15:99	
15	15:99 (cf. Stf 7	
16	22:2	
17	24:14	
18	27:63	
19	37:7	
20	37:7	
21	37:164	
22	38:44	
23	39:11	
24	48:10	
25	50:1-2	
26	52:1	
27	54:50	
28	55:56	
29	58:22	
30	74:31	
31	81:1	
32	99:2-4	

There are two additional extracts in the 1954 ed. of the Essay from the Cawnpore lithograph, the first from vol. 2, p. 310, on Qur³ān 57:21; the second from vol. 2, p. 319, on Qur³ān 59:9.

4. Baqli, Shaṭḥiyāt. P 1091b. Numbered (with interruptions) 163-214, corresponding to Corbin's ed. as follows (an asterisk shows where the original Arabic of the Manṭiq, from Qazan ms., ff. 36-38, is also printed in the 1954 ed. of the Essai):

LM's number	Corbin's paragraph number
163*64	686 (p. 381)
169*	698
172*	706
173*	708
174*	710
174 bis	712 (p. 393, ll. 10-11 only)
175*	713
176	715
177*	717
178*	720 (p. 398, ll. 4-6 only)
179*	724 (p. 402, ll. 9-12 only)
181*	726
182*	728
183	730
184	732
185	735
187	739

LM's number	Corbin's paragraph number
188	741
190	746
191	748
192	751
193	753
195	758
209	781
211	784
213	791-93
214	794

C) A few fragments from other collections:

I. Sulami, Jawāmi^c. P 170c, ms. LJ. Extracts numbered 1-8. Ed. Kohlberg, see bib. Correspondence as follows:

LM's number	Kohlberg's paragraph number
1	
Z	83
3	84
4	86
\$	86
6	87
7	155 (correct by means of Stf 122, on Qur. 28:73; trans. P Fr 3:18-19/ Eng 3:11-12)
8	156

- II. Sulamī, Ghalaṭāt (= Uṣūl...). P 170f, ms. Cairo. See bib. The extract corresponds to the Cairo, 1985, ed. in fine, in the faṣl fihi al-radd calā al-qā līna bi'l-ḥulūl, p. 199. LM remarks that "wa ṣifātuhu...ma būdan" seems to be Sulamī's commentary.
- III. Kharküshi, Tahdhib. P 180a, ms. Berlin. Cf. Arberry's article, "Khargū-shi's Manual of Ṣūfism," BSOAS 1937-39, 345-49.
- IV. Ibn Yazdānyār, Rawda. P 228a, ms. Cairo.
- V. Qushayrī, Risāla. P 231a. Ed. Cairo, 1290, see bib. Massignon went through the Risāla and numbered the quotations from Ḥallāj, 1-16. In the Arabic supplement he reproduces only numbers 2-5 and 7-9, but in ch. I he refers to some of the others. The table below includes, for the extracts written out by him, the vol. and p. numbers of the 1290 ed. from which he was quoting, and, for all of the quotations, the pages in the Cairo edition (1385/1966) of Mahmūd and Sharīf.

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LM's number	Ch. and, for the ones LM writes out, vol. and p. in the 1290 ed.	P. in 1966 ed.
1	fasl I	28-31
2	fași 1 ; 1, 62	43
3	bāb al-khawf; 11, 198	312
4	bāb al-jaw ^c ; 111, 6	333
5	bāb al-tawakkul; III, 15	370
6	bāb al-tawakkul	372
7	bāb al-hurriyya (2x); 111, 152	462 (2x)
8	bāb al-firāsa; III, 177	483
9	bāb al-firāsa; III, 179	484
10	bāb al-firāsa	487
11	bāb al-khulq	494
12	bāb al-taṣawwuf	551
13	bāb al-tawļūd	586
14	bāb al-ma ^c rifa billāh	604-5
15	bāb al-maljahba	617
16	bāb ļiafz gulūb al-mashā ³ ikh	
	wa tark al-khilāf alayhim	636

VI. Hujwīrī, Kashf al-maḥjūb. P 1055a, ms. Paris. Eng. trans., p. 281. Ed. Zhu-kovshy, Tehran reprint, p. 361

VII. Kirmāni, Hikāya. P 330a. 9 extracts.

VIII. Harawi, *Tabaqāt*. P 1059a, ms. N^cU. Extracts numbered 1-3, corresponding to ^cAbd al-Ḥayy Ḥabībi's ed. (see bib.) as follows:

LM's number	Abd al-Ḥayy Ḥabībī
ĭ	sec. 334, p. 395 II. 5-6
2	sec. 186, p. 208 l. 2
2 bis	Cf. sec. 278, p. 323, l. 10: Arabic version (= Stb 16) of part of this handwritten extract
3	sec. 278, p. 324 ll. 3 ff.

IX. Ka^cbi, Manāqib. P 330a, mss. Cairo, London. 2 Extracts.

X. CAṭṭār, Tadhkira. In the 1922 ed. of the Essai, LM reproduced thirteen selected quotations from the ch. on Ḥallāj (in Nicholson's ed., vol. 2, 139-40, for the first twelve, 144 for the last one; in the Tehran ed., vol. 2, 118-19, 122). The code letter "W" with its following number from ch. I indicates one of these quotations. For the 1954 ed. of the Essai Massignon more systematically numbered the quotations from Ḥallāj (I = Nicholson's vol. 2, 138, l. 3). Between no. 7 ("yā dalīl al-mutaḥay-yirīn...") and no. 26 (vol. 2, 140, l. 16, "... zohd-e jān"), he indicated his own additions, which he either wrote out by hand or mentioned as

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appearing in a published source. He then added nos. 27 to 35. The siglum "CAṭṭār" in ch. 1 corresponds to this system.

LM's no. (1922) "W"	LM's no. (1954) "'Aṇār"	Location, either (N) in vol. 2 of Nicholson's ed. (p. and l. are given), in the supplement (hand-
	w///	written), or elsewhere
34	7	N 139 l. 5 ff.
V •	8	N 139 L 10 ff.
	8 bis	T V:8-10
	8 tr	T VI:13
	8 qtr	A 26
36	9	"va az Abū'l-Sawdā
•	•	berasidand"+ N
		139 l. 14 ff.
	10	A 73
38	11	N 139 ll. 19-20
,.	11 bis, tr	handwritten
39	12	N 139 ll. 20-21
**	13	Stb 4
	13 bis	Stb 9
	13 tr, qtr, qnt	handwritten
	14	N 139 l. 22 ff.
	15	N 139 l. 24 ff.
	16	N 140 L 1
44	17	N 140 U. 1-2
**	18	N 140 ll. 2-4
	19	Stf 161
46	20	N 140 ll. 7-9
7-	20 bis	handwritten
47	21	N 140 ll. 9-10
**	21 bis	handwritten
	22	Stb 3
49	23	N 140 l. 11
	24	N 140 ll. 12-13
51	25	N 140 ll. 13-14 + "tā cheh
	-	chiz az şadaf binin äyad
52	26	N 140 ll. 15-16
53		N 140 ll. 16-17
54		N 140 L 18 ff.
34	27	handwritten
	28	Stb 21
	29	end of A 41
	30	Stb 14
	31	Stb 2
	33	var. of Stb 1
	34	Stb 12
	35	Stb 10
92		N 144 ll. 2-3

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XI. Sibt ibn al-Jawzī, Mir at al-zamzān. P 440a, ms. London. 1 extract.

XII. Munāwī, Kawākib. P 795a, 840a.

XIII. Fānī, Sharlı khutba. P 1174a, ms. India Office. 1 extract.

Additional extracts from the 1954 ed. of the Essai that have not been incorporated above (as have nos. XIV, XV, XVI, XVIII, and XXII):

XVII. Ahmad Ghazālî, Sawānih al-cushshāq, P 281c, 1082a. 1 extract.

XIX. Nāgūrī, ms. Calcutta 1 extract.

XX. ^cAyn al-Quḍāt al-Hamadhānī, *Tamhīdāt*. P 1082a, ms. India Office. New ed.: ^cAfif ^cUsayrān (Afif Osseiran). Tehran: Manoochehri Press (3rd printing, 1370 h.s.). 6 extracts.

LM's number	P. and l. in text of Tehran ed.
1	22 l. 4
2	129 ll. 13-14
3	247 ll. 3-7
4	257 1. 7
5	260 1. 7
6	295 1. 8

XXI. Firyābī, ms. Arles. 1 extract.

XXIII. Ḥallāj, Kitāb al-ṣayhūr (preface). Ms. Leningrad.

XXIV. Daylami, ^cAff. P 175b and c (redundant), ms. Tübingen 81. 5 extracts corresponding to Vadet's edition (see bib.) as follows:

LM's numbers	Vadet's section numbers (in both the Arabic ed. and the French trans.)
I = 27b-28b	87-92 (not in the same order)*
II = 47b - 48b	163-65
III = 73b-74a	246
IV = 92b	309
V = 122b	404

^{*}LM notes that his 28b-31a (which he does not reproduce) is a trans, with variants of his number 213 of Baqli's Shathiyāt = Corbin's paragraphs 791-93 = Vadet's sections 92-97.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The French Essai has no bibliography. The Passion's last chapter, a thorough guide to mentions of Ḥallāj in both Islamic and western orientalist literature, is meant to suffice. Massignon invites the reader, when this "Ḥallājian bibliography" cites a work incompletely or not at all, to consult the first edition of Brockelmann's Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur. Unfortunately, the desired information is not always there. Certain old editions were unavailable to me and could not be verified, and the following list of works is not complete. It fills a few holes and should be useful not only as a guide to the footnotes of this translation of the Essay, but for readers of the Passion as well.

Manuscripts have not been pursued. If further information is needed beyond what is given in citations in the footnotes or text, consult the Passion.

An indication of the form "P 316a," refers to the numbering system of the Passion's bibliography, vol. 4. "P (Eng) 316a" would mean that the entry in the English translation (1982) corrects the second French edition of 1975, or contains an error not in the French. Otherwise either the original or the translation will do.

The absence of brackets or braces around an entry indicates that the book or article is listed in the edition that Massignon was using, or one indistinguishable from it. Square brackets, [], mean that he refers, directly or indirectly, in either 1922 or 1954, to the work in question, but that the listed edition appeared too late for his use or was not used. Braces, {}, mean that he does not refer to the work in question. The date will make it obvious which of these books he probably consulted and which are relevant only to the translation. This system of classification leaves some room for ambiguity: Ritter's article on Hasan Baṣrī, for example, though mentioned in a note of 1954, is enclosed in braces because there is no reference to a page, and Massignon's main discussion of Hasan does not benefit from Ritter's work. Consult the Abbreviations if a reference is cryptic, especially if only a fragment of the title is given, without the author's name.

Transliterations that do not belong to the system used throughout the book either are taken from the Roman title pages of the works in the bibliography or are obviously for Persian titles. It is hoped that the resulting ease in locating the books in catalogues will make up for any confusing inconsistencies (e.g., different spellings of the names Ḥallāj and Flügel). Kitāb and al do not affect the order of alphabetization, but risāla does.

WRITINGS AND EDITIONS BY MASSIGNON

This list of studies and editions by Massignon should be supplemented in general by Moubarac's *Oeuvre*, v.i. See also the main portion of this bibliography, s.n. Ḥallāj, for other of Massignon's edition.

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